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PREFACE.

THE present edition of my English Grammar is the outcome of the constant labour of the last three years. The work has been subjected to a searching revision from end to end. In its general form and scope no material alteration has been made, and the numbering of the paragraphs has been left to correspond as closely as possible with that of the last edition, so that the two editions may be used together in class-work without practical inconvenience. I have, however, followed the arrangement of my 'Shorter English Grammar' in introducing the antique forms of the language as they are needed from time to time, instead of relegating them to an Appendix.

Since my 'English Grammar' was first written, various paragraphs in it have been rendered superfluous by the publication of my more elementary grammars. By the excision of such portions, and of several rather long notes devoted to the discussion of points about which there is no longer any dispute, and by the adoption of an improved style of typography, room has been found for the introduction of a good deal of new and valuable matter, illustrating the structure, history, and affinities of the English language. I have

endeavoured to enable the learner to gain an intelligent insight into the real functions of words and forms, and in that way to rise from the mere mastery of *rules* to the comprehension of *principles*. In the Syntax I think I have succeeded in elucidating various troublesome constructions which have not before been explained. Many new examples of analysis have been introduced, and the solution of difficulties made as intelligible as possible by carefully graduating and contrasting the illustrations.

The Exercises in the previous edition were inadequate for the purpose they should have served. In the present edition I have introduced the most appropriate portions of the rather copious exercises attached to the 'Shorter English Grammar,' with such references to the entire series (re-published in a cheap form under the title 'English Grammar Practice') as will enable learners who need greater practice in elementary work to go through the whole course. I strongly recommend that this should be done, if time can be found, as advanced pupils are often hampered by the lingering remains of early misconceptions.

The reader who desires a fuller investigation of the Subjunctive Mood than space could be found for in the present work, is referred to the Appendix to my 'Shorter English Grammar,' republished (with some additions) under the title 'Remarks on the Subjunctive and the so-called Potential Mood.'

In the preparation of this edition the indispensable study of original sources has been aided and supplemented by diligent use of the great works of Mätzner and Koch, and of the valuable stores of Grein and Fick. It will be seen, by references made from time to time, that I have received some important suggestions from Professor Skeat's most

valuable and interesting 'Etymological Dictionary of the English Language.' Dr. Murray's admirable account of the 'Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland' has been of great service. I need hardly say how much the study of the early English writers has been facilitated by the capital editions of parts of Chaucer, and 'Specimens of Early English' by Prof. Skeat and Dr. Morris, and their more elaborate and truly scholarlike work in editing several of the most important remains of old English. Constant and (it is hoped) not unprofitable use has been made of March's 'Anglo-Saxon Grammar,' Sweet's 'Anglo-Saxon Reader,' Skeat's 'Moeso-Gothic Glossary,' and the Anglo-Saxon dictionaries of Grein, Ettmuller, and Leo.

C. P. MASON.

DUKESELL,
CHRISTCHURCH ROAD, STREATHAM HILL,
January, 1881.

ADDENDUM.

Pp. 80, 83. Some persons have the mistaken idea that a preterite like *felt* or *taught*, in which, as compared with the present tense, there is a change of the vowel sound, is a combination of the Strong and the Weak formation and so call such verbs 'mixed.' This is quite wrong. The change of vowel is merely *phonetic*, it is not *formative*. It is a result of the addition of the suffix. The shortening of the vowel in *felt* is like the change of *nā* in *nation* into *nă* in *national*. Sometimes the change ensued much later than the formation of the tense. In old English *cacchen* (= catch) and *cahte* (= caught) had the same vowel. In Anglo-Saxon *tācan* (teach) and *tāhte* (taught) were alike in vowel sound. Indeed in many cases it is the present, rather than the preterite, which has undergone change. The sound of *teach* is comparatively modern.

HISTORICAL OUTLINE.

THE various languages spoken by mankind admit of being grouped together in certain great families, the members of each of which resemble each other more or less closely in the words used to express ideas, and in the grammatical framework of forms and inflexions by which the words are combined. One of these families of languages has been called the **Indo-European** or **Aryan** family.

This family of languages * has two divisions—an Asiatic division and a European division.

A. To the Asiatic division belong—

1. **Sanskrit**, the ancient language of the Hindus (the oldest known form of which is found in the Vedas or sacred hymns), with its later forms and offshoots.
2. **Zend**, the ancient language of Persia, with its later forms, the **Parsi** and the modern **Persian**.

B. To the European division belong—

1. The **Teutonic** † languages, comprising :—
   a. The **Low German** dialects, spoken by the tribes inhabiting the low-lying lands of North Germany, towards the Baltic and the German Ocean. To this subdivision belong **Moeso-Gothic**,‡ **Old Saxon** § (or the Saxon spoken on the Continent), **English**, **Frisian**, **Dutch**, **Flemish**, and **Platt-Deutsch**.
   b. The **Scandinavian** languages of Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, of which the **Old Norse** of Iceland is the purest and most antique in form.
   c. Old and modern **High German**, spoken originally by tribes inhabiting the highlands of Southern Germany.
   Some authorities regard Scandinavian and High German as offsets from the Low German stock.
2. The **Sclavonic** languages of Russia, Poland, Bohemia, Bulgaria, &c., and (related to these) the **Lithuanian** dialects spoken in some of the Baltic provinces.

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* Schleicher and March give diagrams (copied by several other writers), intended to show how the various languages of this family branched out from a parent stock. Such diagrams have the disadvantage of exhibiting a good deal that is merely conjectural as though it were settled fact. The modes and the relative dates of the separation of the different languages from the parent stem, and from each other, are yet a long way from being settled.

† Some writers use the term 'Gothic' instead of, or as well as, 'Teutonic,' as the name of this stock.

‡ Spoken in Dacia by a tribe which appears to have migrated eastward down the Danube. We still possess important fragments of the translation of the Bible, made in this dialect by Bishop Ulphilas in the fourth century.

§ A specimen of this, in the form which it had assumed by the ninth century, is preserved in the poem (or metrical version of the Gospels) called the *Heliand* (i.e. *Saviour*).

3. **The Keltic** languages, divided into the **Kymric** branch (*Welsh*, *Cornish*, and the *Armorican* of Brittany), and the **Gadhelic** or **Gaelic** branch (*Erse*, *Gaelic*, and *Manx*).
4. The **Greek-Latin** group, comprising **ancient Greek** (with its descendant **Romaic**, or modern Greek), and the **Latin** and other dialects of Italy, with the **Romance** languages descended from them—*Italian*, *French*, *Spanish* and *Portuguese*, *Romansch* and *Wallachian*.

Some authorities class the Keltic and Italic dialects together, as branches of a common stock.

It thus appears that **English** belongs to the **Low German** branch of the **Teutonic** stock. It is most akin to the ancient Moeso-Gothic and Old Saxon, and to the modern Frisian.

The inhabitants of **Gaul** and **Britain**, when those countries were invaded by the Romans, were of **Keltic** race, and spoke various dialects of the Keltic group of languages.

The conquered Gauls adopted the Latin language, and the Franks and Normans, who at a later time established themselves in the country, adopted the language of the people they conquered. Thus it has come about that **French** is for the most part a corrupted form of Latin, belonging to that group of languages which is called '**Romance**.'

The Keltic inhabitants of Britain did not adopt the Latin language, but retained their own Keltic dialects. One of these is still spoken by the Keltic inhabitants of Wales.

English is the language brought into England by the **Saxons and Angles**, who in the fifth century conquered and dispossessed the British or Keltic inhabitants, and drove the remnants of them into the remote mountainous corners of the island, especially Wales, Cornwall (which was called West Wales), and Strathclyde (comprising Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the Western Lowlands of Scotland). They were a Teutonic race, coming from the Lowland region in the north-western part of Germany. The name **Angle** appears to have belonged at first only to one division of these Teutonic invaders:* but in course of time, though long before the Norman Conquest, it was extended over the rest, and the entire body of the Teutonic inhabitants of our country called themselves and their language **English**, and their country **England** (Angle-land). In speaking of themselves they also, at least for a time, employed the compound term **Anglo-Saxon**. English thus became the predominant language in our

* That the inhabitants of Wessex, Sussex, Middlesex, and Essex called themselves *Angles* before they came to this island, and that *Saxons* was not their own proper name, but one applied to them by their Welsh neighbours and enemies, and only adopted by themselves as a kind of *alias*, is rather hard to believe. It would be extraordinary that Romans, Franks, and Welshmen should all have agreed in calling them Saxons, if they did not call themselves so. The divisions of the tribes certainly called themselves *West Saxons*, *South Saxons*, *East Saxons*, and *Middle Saxons* respectively as soon as they settled down in England, which argues that they called themselves *Saxons* as a whole. It should be noted that when Bede enumerates the descendants of the Angles in England, he excludes the inhabitants of the Saxon area. If Bede's authority is invoked to show that *Angle* and *Saxon* were alternative names, it should be remembered that in his Latin *sive* and *vel* signify *and*.

island from the Firth of Forth * to the English Channel, and has continued so for more than thirteen centuries. During this time it has, of course, undergone many changes. It has adopted many new words from other languages, and its forms have been altered to some extent; but it has lasted in unbroken continuity from its introduction until now.

Modern English is only a somewhat altered form of the language which was brought into England by the Saxons and Angles, and which in its early form, before the changes consequent upon the Norman Conquest, is commonly called **Anglo-Saxon**. The grammatical framework of Modern English is still purely **Anglo-Saxon**.

As regards its form, **Anglo-Saxon (or old English)** differed from modern English in this respect, that it had a much greater number of grammatical inflexions. Thus nouns had five cases, and there were different declensions (as in Latin); adjectives were declined, and had three genders; pronouns had more forms, and some had a dual number as well as a singular and plural; the verbs had more variety in their personal terminations. The greater part of these inflexions were dropped in the course of the three centuries following the Norman Conquest,† the grammatical functions of several of them being now served by separate words, such as prepositions and auxiliary verbs. This change is what is meant when it is said that Anglo-Saxon (or ancient English) was an *inflexional* language, and that **modern English** is an **analytical** language.

The greater part of the foreign words that have been incorporated into English, and are now part and parcel of the language, may be divided into the following classes:—

1. **Words of Keltic origin.**—The Anglo-Saxons adopted a few Keltic words from such Britons as they kept among them as slaves or wives. These words consist chiefly of geographical names, such as Avon, Don, Usk, Exe, Ouse, Pen (in *Pen*rith, *Pen*zance), Mendip, Wight, Kent, &c.; and words relating to common household matters, such as *kiln, crook, clout, darn, gruel, mattock, mop, rug, wire,* &c. As the Gauls were of Keltic race, Keltic words naturally made their appearance in French, and some were thus introduced into our language not directly from the Britons, but through the medium of Norman-French (such, for example, as *basket, button, gown, wicket, bran, fleam*).

2. **Words of Scandinavian origin.**—Men of Scandinavian race (Picts, Norsemen, and Danes) made repeated incursions into this island during several centuries, and established themselves in force in East Anglia, Northumbria, Cumberland and Westmoreland, and part of Mercia. In consequence of this a good many Scandinavian words made their way into common use, and Danish or Scandinavian forms appear in many names of places in the districts occupied by the Scandinavian invaders, such as *by* ('town,' as in Grimsby); *Scaw* ('wood,' as in Scawfell); *force* ('waterfall,' as Stockgill Force); *holm*

* Lowland Scotch is a genuine Anglian dialect, and has kept closer to the Teutonic type than modern English. Early Scotch writers (as Barbour and Dunbar) expressly call their language 'English.'

† In the Northern dialect this change began much earlier, and was accelerated by the Danish (= Norse) incursions and settlements. By the end of the thirteenth century this dialect had become as uninflexional as modern English.

('island,' as in Langholm); *ness* ('headland,' as in Furness); *ey* ('island,' as in Orkney); *beck* ('brook,' as in Troutbeck), &c. The influx of the Scandinavian element produced on the northern dialects the same sort of effect that the Norman-French element did on the southern dialects; it accelerated the weakening and disuse of the inflexions, and introduced some fresh elements into the language.

8. Words of Latin origin, and Greek Words introduced through Latin.—Of these we have now immense numbers in English, the words of classical origin being considerably more than twice as numerous as those of Teutonic origin, there being, according to some authorities, about 29,000 of the former, to about 13,000 of the latter. These words came in at various periods, and under various circumstances.

a. A few Latin words, connected with names of places, were adopted by the Britons from the Romans, and by the Angles and Saxons from the Britons,* and appear, for example, in Chester (*castra*), Gloucester, Stratford (*strata*), Lincoln (*colonia*), Fossbury (*fossa*).

b. A good many words of classical origin were introduced between the settlement of the Saxons and the Norman Conquest by the ecclesiastics who brought Christianity into England. These words are mostly ecclesiastical terms, and names of social institutions and natural objects previously unknown to the English. These words came direct from Latin, or from Greek through Latin.

c. A much larger number of words of Latin origin came to us through Norman-French, the acquired language of the Norman conquerors of England. After the Conquest this was of course the language of the Norman nobles and their retainers throughout England.† To a more limited (though still considerable) extent it had been introduced as the language of the court of Edward the Confessor. Most of the words in our language which relate to feudal institutions, to war, law, and the chase, were introduced in this way. The terms employed in science, art, and the higher literary culture are, to a large extent, of the same origin. Not that Anglo-Saxon had not such terms, but they belonged to the *literary*, and not to the ordinary spoken language. After the Conquest Norman-French became the literary language, because literature continued to be cultivated only among the dominant class. English thus lost its old literary vocabulary, which became forgotten, and had to be replaced from Norman-French. But the words of ordinary life were used as freely and vigorously as ever by the mass of the native population. An important change, however, in the English language was at least accelerated, if not first commenced, by the influence of the Norman-French, which was established side by side with it. Of the two races which made up the population, Normans and Englishmen, each had enough to do to learn the vocabulary of the other, without troubling themselves with an alien system of inflexions. Thus the numerous grammatical inflexions of the older English came to be first levelled‡ in a great many cases to a monotonous and meaningless *-e*, and finally lost altogether. In the course of the three centuries that followed the Conquest they were reduced to little more than their present number.

d. The revival of the study of the classical languages in the sixteenth

* Beware of the mistake of saying that these words were introduced into *English* by the *Romans*.

† Though William himself tried to learn English, and sometimes used it in public documents.

‡ For this convenient and expressive term we are indebted to Mr. H. Sweet.

century led to the introduction of an immense number of Latin and Greek words, which were taken direct from the original languages. Many of these importations have since been discarded. It often happens that the same classical word has given rise to two words in English, one coming to us through Norman-French, the other taken direct from Latin. In such cases, the former is the shorter and more corrupted form. Compare, for example, *hotel* and *hospital*, *reason* and *rational*, *poison* and *potion*.

4. Words of Miscellaneous origin.—The extensive intercourse maintained during the last three hundred years with all parts of the world naturally led to the introduction of words from most languages of importance, relating to natural productions, works of art, or social institutions, with which this intercourse first made us acquainted.

Thus it has come about that the two chief constituents of **modern English** are **Anglo-Saxon** and **Latin**, mixed with a small proportion of words of miscellaneous origin. Most of the Teutonic elements of English were introduced by the Saxons and Angles. A good many also came in with the Danes and Norsemen (for the Scandinavian races are of the Teutonic stock), and a few more passed from the Norsemen into Norman-French, and so found their way into English.

As a general rule (admitting, of course, of numerous exceptions) it will be found that words relating to common natural objects, to home life, to agriculture, and to common trades and processes, are usually of Teutonic origin. Words relating to the higher functions of social life—religion, law, government, and war, to the less obvious processes of the mind, and to matters connected with art, science, and philosophy, are commonly of classical and mostly of Latin origin. Most words of three or more syllables, and a large number of those of two, are of classical origin. The Teutonic element prevails (though very far from exclusively) in words of one or two syllables, and is by far the most forcible and expressive. Hence it predominates in all our finest poetry. It is impossible to write a single sentence without Teutonic elements, but sentence after sentence may be found in Shakspeare and the English Bible, which is pure English, in the strictest sense of that term.

One great advantage which English has derived from the mingling of the Teutonic and Romance elements is the great richness of its vocabulary, and its power of expressing delicate shades of difference in the signification of words by the use of pairs of words, of which one is Teutonic and the other French.*

The changes by which Anglo-Saxon (or the oldest English) became modern English were gradual, and no exact date can be given for the introduction of this or that particular alteration. Still the process was influenced or accelerated at certain points by political events. The Norman Conquest, and the political relations between the conquering and the conquered race, naturally made Norman-French the language of the court and the nobles, of the courts of justice, of the episcopal sees, and of garrisoned places. But the loss of Normandy in 1206, the enactments of Henry III. and Louis IX., that the subjects of the one crown should not hold lands in the territory of the other, and the political movements under John and Henry III., stopped the further influx of the Norman element. At the same time the absolutist tendencies of the kings drove the nobles into closer union with the Anglo-Saxon elements

* Compare, for example, *feeling* and *sentiment*, *work* and *labour*, *bloom* and *flower*. The number of pairs of exactly synonymous words is small.

of the nation; and the French wars of Edward III. roused an anti-French feeling among all classes, which extended itself even to the language, insomuch that we learn from Chaucer, that in his time French was spoken in England but rarely, and in a corrupted form. In 1362 appeared the edict of Edward III. that legal proceedings in the royal courts should be conducted in English, though French continued for sixty years longer to be the language of Parliament, and for yet another sixty years to be the language of the laws.

Koch divides the historical development of English into five periods, in the following manner :—

First Period, that of **old Anglo-Saxon.*** This period extends from the time of the oldest literary monuments to about A.D. 1100. The language was divided into two groups of dialects, the Northern or *Anglian*, and the Southern or *Saxon*. The Northern speech (that of Northumbria) was the first to become a cultivated literary language, but there are few remains of it in its earliest form. Under the ravages of the Danes the literature perished.

On the rise of the kingdom of Wessex to supremacy the Southern, or (more strictly) the West-Saxon dialect became the standard literary language. It is in this that the bulk of the works usually called Anglo-Saxon are written. It was not an *imported* form of speech, but simply the cultivated form of the dialect of the district.† It did not oust the other dialects from use in oral speech, even when used for literary purposes beyond the Saxon area. In the latter part of the period the *levelling* (see *p.* 4) of the inflexions had already commenced.

Second Period, that of **late Anglo-Saxon.** This period extends over about 150 years, to the middle of the thirteenth century, and shows marks of the influence of the Danish and Norman settlements in disturbing the older system of inflexions, obliterating many of its distinctions, and so preparing the way for the still greater simplification which followed. In the latter part of the period Norman-French words begin to be incorporated in the language.

Third Period, termed by Koch **Old English.** This period, which extends over some 100 years, from about 1250 till about 1350, exhibits a continued weakening of the old forms, spoken sounds and their written representatives being both in an unsettled state, and the influence of Norman-French being distinctly traceable.

The Norman Conquest displaced the Southern dialect from its literary supremacy. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries three dialects, or groups of dialects, held equal rank. These were—

1. The **Northern dialect**, which prevailed on the East of the Pennine range from the Humber to the Firth of Forth. In the course of time this dialect received a somewhat special development in Lowland Scotch. It was by much the earliest to exhibit the levelling and loss of its inflexions.

2. The **Southern dialect**, spoken south of the Thames and in Gloucestershire and parts of Herefordshire and Worcestershire.

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* Our forefathers (or some of them) called themselves for a time *Anglo-Saxons*. It is disputed whether this term denoted a people made up of the Angles and the Saxons, or the *Saxons of England*, as contrasted with the *Old Saxons* of the Continent. There is a similar ambiguity in the term as applied by modern writers to the language. It may be held to include the scanty remains that we have of the old Northumbrian dialect, though practically what is called Anglo-Saxon is the old South Saxon speech.

† It was called *Englisc* by those who wrote it, perhaps (as Mr. Earle suggests) because the first cultivated book-speech was *Englisc*, i.e. *Anglian*.

3. The **Midland dialect,*** which prevailed in the intervening districts.†

Fourth Period, called by Koch **Middle English,** reaching to near the end of the fifteenth century. The great feature of this period is the establishment of the **East Midland dialect,** through the influence of Wycliffe and Chaucer, as the standard literary language of England generally. This dialect also extended its area as the language of common life, especially in the eastern part of the Southern area.‡

Fifth Period, that of **Modern English.**§

Leaving the vocabulary of the language out of consideration, it may be stated summarily that English has preserved from its Anglo-Saxon stage the suffixes that it still possesses in nouns and pronouns; the conjugation of its verbs; the articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and numerals; the comparative and superlative suffixes of adjectives, and the formation of adverbs; the flexibility and variety which it has in the formation of compounds; the most important part of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed; the predominant principles of accentuation; and the compactness and straightforwardness of the syntactical arrangement of its periods. To French we owe a considerable modification of the sounds of the language, the suppression of the sound of *l* before other consonants, such as *f, v, k, m,* &c.; the softening or disuse of the hard, guttural sounds of *h* and *gh,* the change of hard *c* into *ch,* and the use of *e* mute at the end of words;

* One characteristic point of difference between the three dialects was, that all three persons of the plural of the present tense ended in *-es* in the Northern (at least when the personal pronouns did not come immediately before them), in *-en* in the Midland, and in *-eth* in the Southern. Also in the Imperative plural the Northern had *-es,* the Midland and Southern *-eth.* The Northern dialect had dropped the personal suffixes in the past tense. The Imperfect Participle ended in *-and* in the Northern and in *-inde* or *-ynde* in the Southern. In the Perfect Participle the Northern dropped the prefix *ge-.* In many cases initial *s* was preferred to *sh* (*sal, suid* for *shal, shulde*). We find *k* for *ch* (*bink* for *bench, kirk* for *chirche*); *at* for *that, thir* for *thise, at* and *til* for *to* in the infinitive mood. The Northern dialect was the most tenacious of the old sounds of the language, the Southern dialect was most tenacious of the old inflexions. The latter preferred the flat sounds of *z* and *v* to the sharp sounds of *s* and *f,* and the broad vowels *o* and *u* to *a* and *i.*

† The dialects of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire are classed by Dr. Morris in the West Midland, by Mätzner in the Northern group. These districts belonged at first to Cumbria and Strathclyde. It seems natural to suppose that the Northern part of the district, at any rate, owed most, both in population and in language, to Northumbria, to which it was contiguous. Moreover, Norsemen settled in force in part of the district. It is to Dr. Morris that we are indebted for the first thorough and systematic discrimination of these dialects.

‡ Hence Puttenham, towards the end of the sixteenth century, describes this speech, then prevalent in London and the home counties, as 'Southern English,' the old Southern dialect maintaining its ground in the Western counties; and so he describes the dialects of England as *Northern, Southern,* and *Western,* instead of *Northern, Midland,* and *Southern.*

§ The above subdivision is, perhaps, more elaborate than is necessary. There is no break of any consequence between the Third and Fourth Periods. No new principle of change begins to operate. We simply have in the Fourth Period a still further development, on exactly the same lines, of what was going on in the Third. There is no epoch at the dividing line of these two periods comparable to those formed by the Norman Conquest, which preceded the Third Period, and the invention of printing and the revival of letters, which ushered in the latest period. It would be simpler and quite sufficient to divide English, in its historical aspect, into three periods—the first (Old English or Anglo-Saxon) embracing Koch's first two periods; the second (Middle or Transition English) comprising Koch's third and fourth periods; and the third (Modern English) coinciding with Koch's fifth period. Mr. Sweet (who however does not divide the periods at quite the same points as Koch, though the difference is not great) characterizes these three cardinal divisions as the *Period of Full Inflexions,* the *Period of Levelled Inflexions,* and the *Period of Lost Inflexions.* Each period has naturally an earlier and a later stage. The names *First Period, Second Period,* &c., are very bald and unsuggestive.

the introduction of the sibilant sounds of *j*, *g*, *ch* and *c*; the use of the letter *z*, and the consonantal sound of *v*, and a great deal of change and confusion in the vowel sounds. French influence assisted in the recognition of *s* as the general sign of the plural in nouns. To French we also owe a considerable number of the suffixes and prefixes by which derivatives are formed, and are probably indebted for our deliverance from that stiff and involved arrangement of sentences under which modern German still labours. (*Mätzner.*)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

1. **Speech or language** is the expression of thought by words.

2. **Grammar** (from the Greek *gramma*, 'letter') is the science that treats of speech or language. **English Grammar** is that portion of the science which treats of the speech of the English people.

3. **Words** are significant combinations of sounds. These sounds are represented to the eye by marks or symbols called **letters** (Latin *litera*), the whole collection of which is called the **Alphabet** (from *alpha*, *beta*, the names of the first two letters of the Greek Alphabet). The right mode of uttering the sounds that make up a word is called **Orthoepy** (from the Greek *orthos*, 'right,' and *epos*, 'spoken word'). The right mode of representing the sounds that make up a word by letters is called **Orthography** (from the Greek *orthos*, 'right,' and *grapho*, 'I write').

4. **A sentence** (Latin *sententia*, 'thought') is a collection of words of such kinds and arranged in such a manner as to express some complete thought. Words are of different sorts according to the purpose which they serve in a sentence.

> Thus, in the sentence "The little bird flies swiftly through the air," **bird** is the name of something that we speak about; **the** points out which bird is meant; **little** describes the bird; **flies** states what the bird does; **swiftly** denotes the manner in which the bird does this; **through** shows how the action of the bird is related to the air.

The different sorts of words are called **Parts of Speech.**

5. **Etymology** (from Greek *etymos* 'true,' and *logos* 'word' or

'statement') is that part of grammar which treats of words separately. **Syntax** (Greek *syn* 'together,' and *taxis* 'arrangement') is that part of grammar which treats of the way in which words are combined in sentences.

THE ALPHABET.

6. The English alphabet consists now of twenty-six letters, each of which is written in two forms, the large letters being called Capitals, or Capital Letters* :—

A, a: B, b: C, c: D, d: E, e: F, f: G, g: H, h: I, i: J, j: K, k: L, l: M, m: N, n: O, o: P, p: Q, q: R, r: S, s: T, t: U, u: V, v: W, w: X, x: Y, y: Z, z.

7. The **English** alphabet is the ordinary **Roman** alphabet, with the addition of the letter **w**. The old English (Anglo-Saxon) alphabet had no **j**, **q**,† **v**, or **z**, and contained two symbols which have since been discarded, namely, ð (*eth*) and þ (*thorn*), which both stood for *th*.‡ Instead of **w** the symbol ƿ (*wen*) was used. Also for a time, in the Transition Period of English, the sign ȝ was used for a sound like *g* or a guttural *y*.

VOWELS.

8. The letters **a, e, i, o, u** are called **Vowels** (Latin *vocalis*,§ 'that can be sounded'). They can be sounded by themselves, with a continuous passage of the breath. The remaining letters are called **Consonants** (Lat. *con* 'together,' *sonans* 'sounding'). They either stop (partially or completely), or else set free the passage of the breath by which vowels are sounded. They therefore have a vowel either before or after them.§

9. There are thirteen simple vowel sounds in English; the sounds of *a* in *fall*, *father*, *fate*, *fat*; the sounds of *e* in *met* and *mete*; the sound of *i* in *pin*: the sounds of *o* in *not* and *note*; the sounds of *u* in *rule*, *pull*, *fur*, and *but*. Of these sounds some are long, some short.

The primary vowel sounds are *ĭ* (as in *pin*), *ă* (as in *far*), and *ŭ* (as

* Capital letters are used at the beginning of proper names, for the nominative case singular of the personal pronoun of the first person, and for any noun, adjective, or pronoun, used in speaking of the Divine Being. They may also be used at the beginning of a common noun, when it is used in a special or technical sense, as *Mood*, *Voice*, *Person*, 'the Solicitor-General,' 'the Lord Chief Justice,' and at the beginning of a noun, or an adjective and a noun, denoting something specially important. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are also written with capitals. We also write His Majesty, Her Majesty, &c. The first word of a sentence and of a line of poetry must begin with a capital.

† The very name of *q* is French,—*queue* = 'the *tailed* letter.'

‡ Both ð and þ are probably modified forms of *d*, þ being a D which has had the back-stroke lengthened both ways. In the oldest English there seems to have been no difference of sound between them. Some MSS. use ð in all cases, others þ. When the sound of *th* in 'thing' became different from that of *th* in 'the,' ð was appropriated to the latter. The *y* in the old-fashioned way of writing 'the' (*yᵉ* or *ye*) is a corruption of þ.

§ "A vowel is the result of an *open position* of the organs of speech, a consonant is the result of an *opening action* of the organs of speech" (*Melville Bell*).

in *full*); all others are lengthenings, combinations, or modifications of these.*

10. When two dissimilar vowel sounds are uttered without a break between them, we get a vocal or sonant **diphthong** (Greek *dis* 'twice,' and *phthonge* 'sound'). There are four of them :—

1. **i**, as in *bite*, made up of the *a* in *far* and the *e* in *mete*.
2. **oi**, as in *hoist*, also written *oy* (*boy*) and *uoy* (*buoy*), made up of the sound of *a* in *fall* and *e* in *mete*.
3. **eu**, as in *eulogy*, also expressed in writing by *u* (*mute*), *ew* or *ewe* (*few, ewe*), *eau* (*beauty*), *ui* (*suit*), *ue* (*hue*), *yu* (*yule*).
4. **ou**, as in *noun*. This is also expressed in writing by *ow* (*now*).

When two of the letters called vowels are used to represent a simple vowel sound, we get an **improper diphthong** or **digraph.**

11. The letters **w** and **y** are commonly called **semi-vowels.** When they are followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, their sound approaches that of a consonant, as in *win, twin, you, yonder.* They form a connecting link between vowels and consonants. When a vowel precedes them in the same syllable they combine with it to form either a diphthong or a simple vowel sound ; as *awe, how, dray, bey, buy.* **Y** is a pure vowel whenever it is followed by a consonant (as in Yttria). It was always a pure vowel in Anglo-Saxon.

12. All the vowel sounds are produced by the unimpeded passage of the breath, when modified by the glottis into *voice*, through the tube of the mouth, which is made to assume different shapes by altering the form and position of the tongue and the lips.

CONSONANTS.

13. Consonants or **voice-checks** are divisible into two chief classes :—A. Consonants which only partially stop the current of the breath, allowing it still to escape either past the tongue, or through the nostrils. These consonants have been termed by different writers *continuous*, *spirant* (i.e. *breathing*), or *fricative* (the breath, as it were, *rubbing* past).

The **continuous consonants** are subdivided into—

1. The **Liquids** (or *flowing* sounds) **l, m, n, r.** Of these **m** and **n** are **nasal** sounds, the breath escaping through the nose. Closely allied to *n* is the distinct nasal sound **ng**.
2. The **Sibilants** (or *hissing* sounds). These are—
   a. Simple :—**s** ; **z** (as in *zeal*) ; **sh** ; **z** (in *azure*).
   b. Compound :—**ch** (in *chest*), equivalent to *tsh* ; **j** (in *jest*) or **soft g** (in *gentle*), equivalent to *dzh*. **X** is merely a double letter = *ks* (in *next*), or *gs* (in *exact*).
3. The **Lisping sounds, th** (in *thin*) and **th** (in *this*).
4. The **Labials** (or *lip* letters) **f** and **v.**†

B. Consonants which wholly stop the passage of the breath. These

* On observing the position of the organs of speech it will be found that *a* (= *ah*) is midway between *i* (= *ee*) and *u* (= *oo*). If, without stopping the voice, *a* is made to pass into *u*, the sound of *o* intervenes ; if it is made to pass into *i*, the sound of *a* (in *fate*) intervenes.

† *F, v,* and *th* are sometimes classed among the *mutes* and called *aspirates* ; but it would be better to discard the name. The sounds are perfectly simple, they are not really made by blending the sound of *h* with those of *p, b, t* and *d*.

are commonly called **Mutes.*** They are **p, b, t, d, k** (or hard **c**), **g.** They are sometimes described as *momentary*, or *explosive.*†

Labials, Dentals, and Gutturals.

14. All the consonants (or voice-checks), whether continuous or momentary, may be arranged in groups according to the organ of speech which is chiefly brought into action in forming them. These groups are—

1. **Labials** (Latin *labium* 'lip') formed with the lips:—**p, b, f, v, m.** With these may be classed the semi-vowel **w.**
2. **Dentals** (Lat. *dens* 'tooth'), or **Palatals** (Lat. *palatum* 'palate') formed by different sorts of contact between the tongue and the palate:—**t, d, th,** the trills **l** and **r,** the nasal **n,** and all the sibilants.
3. **Gutturals** (Lat. *guttur* 'throat') formed at the root of the tongue or the top of the throat:—**k** (or hard **c**), hard **g** and the nasal **ng.** **H** was a guttural letter in Anglo-Saxon, something like *ch* in the Scotch *loch.*‡ It now forms a division by itself, being a simple impulse of the breath, and yet not a vowel. It is called an **Aspirate** (Lat. *ad* 'at,' *spirare* 'to breathe'). To the gutturals is allied the semi-vowel **y.**

Hard (or Sharp) Consonants and Soft (or Flat) Consonants.

15. In pronouncing **p, t,** or **k,** it will be felt that the muscles which adjust the organs of speech are in a state of sharper tension than when **b, d,** or **g** is sounded. The former consonants have a *hard* or *sharp* sound, the latter a *soft* or *dull* sound.

To the class of **Hard** § or **Sharp Consonants** (or **Hard Checks**) belong **p, t, k** (or hard **c**), **f, th** (in *thin*), **s, sh, ch.**

To the class of **Soft** § or **Flat Consonants** (or **Soft Checks**) belong **b, d,** hard **g, v, th** (in *this*), **z** (in *zeal*), **z** (in *azure*), **j** or soft **g.**

16. Assimilation.—When a hard and a soft consonant come together,

* Do not confound the *Mutes* with *mute letters* such as *e* in *fate*, or *p* in *psalm.*

† This term is more fanciful than correct. It is the *breath*, not the *stoppage* of it, that *explodes.*

‡ The guttural sounds of *ch* and *gh* do not now belong to English; *ch* (hard) is sounded as *k*, and *gh* is silent, or sounded as *f*.

§ Instead of the contrasted terms *Hard* and *Soft*, or *Sharp* and *Flat*, the older grammars (especially those for Latin and Greek) give us the terms *thin* and *middle* (the soft consonants being regarded as half-way between the *thin* and the *aspirate* mutes). Later writers use the terms *surd* and *sonant*, or *breathed* and *voiced* (which mean much the same as *surd* and *sonant*). The terms *breathed* and *voiced* are becoming very usual with writers on Phonetics. 'Breath' becomes 'Voice' when the vocal chords are stretched and set in vibration. Now if we adjust the organs of speech for one of the soft consonants (say *b*), it is possible *to make a sort of sound in the mouth* without opening the lips; but if we adjust the organs of speech for a hard consonant (as *p*), it is impossible to convert the *breath* in the mouth into *voice* without breaking the contact by which the consonant is formed, and letting the breath out. Hence *p* is called a *breathed consonant*, and *b* a *voiced consonant.* These terms, however, are open to the objection that they 'put the cart before the horse.' A consonant like *b* does not *get* its peculiar quality as contrasted with *p* by forming voice in the mouth, it must *have* its peculiar quality by the adjustment of the organs before *voice* can be produced. The two classes of consonants would be better described as *tense* and *lax.* If the terms *sharp* and *flat* are employed, it must be kept in mind that they involve no reference to a difference of *pitch.*

the one gets assimilated to the other. Hence *tricked* is sounded as *trickt*, and the soft sound of the plural *s* or *es* acts upon the *f* of *calf* or *wife*, and produces the forms *calves*, *wives*. So the sharp *s* of *house* is softened in *houses*. (Not, however, in *horses*, &c.)

17. A syllable (Greek *syllabe*, 'a taking together') is a single vowel, or a group of letters containing only one vowel sound.

A word which consists of a single syllable is called a **Monosyllable** (Greek *monos*, 'single'), such as *man*, *horse*, *hut*.

A word of two syllables is called a **Disyllable**, as *folly*, *learning*.

A word of three syllables is called a **Trisyllable**, as *loveliness*.

A word that consists of more than three syllables is called a **Polysyllable** (Greek *polys*, 'many'), as *singularity*.

18. When a syllable beginning with a vowel is added to a monosyllable or a word accented on the last syllable, ending in a *single* consonant preceded by a *single* vowel, the final consonant is doubled. As *sin*, *sinner*; *sit*, *sitting*; *expel*, *expelled*; *confer*, *conferred*. But if the accent does not fall on the last syllable, the final consonant is not doubled; as *offer*, *offered*; *differ*, *different*; *visit*, *visiting*. The letters *l* and *s*, however, are generally doubled, as *travel*, *traveller*; *hocus*, *hocussing*. There are also some other words in which the rule is violated, as *worshipper*. The reason for this doubling of the consonant is that the quantity or length of the preceding vowel may be preserved. A doubled consonant usually shows that the preceding vowel is short. Compare *running* and *tuning*, *sinning* and *dining*, *manning* and *waning*. Before *ll* and *ss*, *a* and *o* are often long, as in *roll*, *stroll*, *squall*, *fall*, *gross*, *grass*, &c.

When a syllable (not beginning with *i*) is added to a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i*, as *happy*, *happily*, *happier*; *pity*, *pitiless*. When the final *y* is preceded by a vowel it is not changed, as *buy*, *buyer*. When *ing* is added after *ie*, the *i* is changed into *y*; as *die*, *dying*; *lie*, *lying*. I or the sake of distinction *dye* makes *dyeing*. Long *y* is not changed before a consonant, as *dryness*.

Mute e after a single consonant usually shows that the preceding vowel is long: compare *shin* and *shine*, *ban* and *bane*. It is generally omitted when a syllable that begins with a vowel is added; as *force*, *forcible*, and sometimes when the added syllable begins with a consonant as in *truly*, *duly*; but it is retained if it is required to preserve the pronunciation of the consonant, as in *change*, *changeable*. It is always put after final *v*.

19. Words must be divided into syllables according to the way in which the component sounds are grouped together in speaking. Thus we must write *fa-cing*, not *fac-ing*; *de-cent*, not *dec-ent*. But when it is possible, the syllables should correspond to the significant parts of which the word is made up, as in *trans-port*, *in-spect*.

ANOMALIES OF THE ENGLISH LETTER SYSTEM.

20. A. The same letters are used to represent different sounds.

1. The letter **A** represents five simple vowel sounds, as in *fate*, *fall*, *far*, *fat*, *want*.

The letter **E** represents five simple vowel sounds, as in *mēte, pĕt, herd, clerk, pretty.*

The letter **I** represents two simple vowel sounds, as in *pīt* (long in *marine*) and *fir;* and one diphthongal sound as in *bite.*

The letter **O** represents three simple vowel sounds, as in *poke, pot, for.*

The letter **U** represents four simple vowel sounds, as in *rūde, pŭll, fun, fur.*

Compare also **au** in *aunt, saunter;* **ai** in *laid, said, aisle;* **ea** in *great, beat, breast, heart, earth;* **ei** in *neigh, sleight, receive;* **ey** in *prey, eye;* **ie** in *belief, friend;* **oa** in *coat, broad;* **oe** in *shoe, doe;* **oo** in *tool, door, flood,* **ou** in *scour, pour, journal, through;* **ow** in *tow, cow.*

C is hard (= **k**) before **a**, **o**, and **u** (*can, cob, cut*); but soft (= **s**) before **e**, **i**, and **y** (*cell, city, Cyprus*).

CH is hard (= **k**) in *ache, mechanics,* but generally soft (= **tch**), as in *much, child,* &c. Like **sh** in a few words taken from French, as *machine.*

The soft sound of *ch* is due to the influence of Norman-French.

G is hard before **a**, **o**, and **u** (*gave, go, gun*), soft before **e** (*gem*), and before **i** and **y** in words not of Teutonic origin (*gin, gypsy*); but hard in *gill* (of a fish), *give, gilt,* &c., and in *Gertrude, Geddes.*

The hard sound of **g** is often maintained by putting **u** after it, as *guile, guild, guest.*

TH has both a hard and a soft sound (*thin, this*).

GH is sometimes mute (as in *though*), sometimes sounded like *f* (*laugh*).

B. The same sounds are represented in different ways.

1. Compare the following words in sound and spelling:—

F*a*te, br*ai*d, s*ay*, gr*ea*t, n*ei*gh, pr*ey*, g*ao*l, g*au*ge.
F*a*ll, f*o*r, fr*au*d, cl*aw*, br*oa*d, *ough*t.
F*a*r, cl*e*rk, *au*nt, h*ea*rt.
M*e*te, m*ee*t, m*ea*t, p*eo*ple, ch*ief*, rec*ei*ve,* qu*ay*, k*ey*, *ae*ther, Ph*oe*bus, mar*i*ne.
P*e*t, m*a*ny, s*ai*d, s*ay*s, b*u*ry, tr*ea*d, fr*ie*nd, h*ei*fer, L*eo*nard.
H*e*rd, b*i*rd, c*u*r, *ea*rth.
P*i*t, pr*e*tty, s*ie*ve, b*u*sy, b*ui*ld, s*y*llable, surf*ei*t.
B*i*te, th*y*, *eye*, h*ei*ght, d*ie*s, b*uy*, *ai*sle.
P*o*ke, c*oa*t, t*oe*, s*ou*l, t*ow*, s*ew*, *owe*, d*oo*r.
P*o*t, wh*a*t.
R*u*de, r*oo*d, fl*ew*, bl*ue*, fr*ui*t, thr*ou*gh, sh*oe*.
F*u*ll, g*oo*d.
F*u*n, l*o*ve, d*oe*s, fl*oo*d, r*ou*gh.

2. Compare the consonantal signs in *f*ind, *Ph*ilip, lau*gh*:—

*S*ent, *c*ent, *c*inder, mer*cy*, *sc*ent, ba*se*, fa*ce*.
*Z*eal, pan*s*, re*s*erve, *X*enophon, add*s*, ad*se*.
Su*ch*, cru*tch*,† na*t*ure.
*Sh*un, ten*s*ion, na*t*ion patri*c*ian, *s*ugar.
A*s*ure, vi*s*ion, occa*s*ion.

* It is convenient to bear in mind that with the exception of the words *seize* and *ceiling*, *ei* with the sound of *ee* is found only in words derived from the Latin *capio* as *deceit* (decipio), *receipt* (recipio), *conceit* (concipio), &c.

† *T* before *ch*, and *d* before *g* in the same syllable are often inserted merely to show that the following consonant is to be sounded as a sibilant.

*J*est, *g*entle, ada*g*e, bri*dg*e, ju*dg*ment.
*C*eep, *c*at, *c*ot, *c*ut, mo*ck*, *qu*ench, a*ch*e, me*ch*anics.
*G*ave, *gu*ile, *gh*ost.

C. **Simple sounds are sometimes expressed by two letters,** as in *caul*, pri*est*, and words containing the other improper diphthongs (or *digraphs*). So also *ck* = *k*, *ch* = *k* (sometimes).

Complex sounds are sometimes expressed by single letters, as by *i* and *u* in *mine* and *pure*, by *j* in *just*, *g* in *gentle*.

Letters are often written but not pronounced, as in *k*now, benig*n*, throu*gh*, wa*l*k, and the numerous examples of mute *e** (*bane*, *tuneful*, &c.).

Hard *c*, *q*, *x*, and perhaps *w* and *y* are **superfluous letters**; their sounds may be represented by other letters.

If we include *w* and *y* as separate sounds, and the nasal *ng*, we shall have **forty-one elementary sounds in English**. *Wh* is pronounced like *hw*, and is not a separate simple sound.

21. The anomalies that exist in English spelling have arisen chiefly from the circumstance that great changes have taken place in the pronunciation of words, while the changes in the written language have not kept pace with the changes in pronunciation. In its Anglo-Saxon stage our language was free from these anomalies. The mixture of Norman-French with English disturbed the pronunciation greatly. We owe to it the sound of *j*, the soft sounds of *c* and *g*, and the introduction of *z* and *qu*. Initial *f* in Anglo-Saxon was sounded like *v*. The softening of *ti*, or of *tu* before *r*, into *ch* or *sh* (as in *question*, *nation*, *nature*) occurs only in Romance words, as is also the case with *di* or *du* in *soldier* and *verdure*.

22. In Anglo-Saxon long **i** was sounded like *ee* in *seen*, never as in *pine*; **ā** was sounded like *a* in *fate*, never like *ee*; **ǣ** as in *father*, never as in *fate*, the sound of **a** in *bat* being denoted by **æ**; **ū** and **ŭ** were sounded as in *rule* and *full*, the sound of *ŭ* in *but* not being used. The letter **o** represented either *ō*, as in *bone*, or *ŏ* as in *on*, never a *u* sound as in *son* or *soon*.

As regards the consonants, **c** and **g** were always hard. The sibilants **sh**, **z** as in *azure*, **ch** and **j** did not exist. The aspirate **h** had a more guttural sound than in modern English. The weakening of this sound was due to the influence of Norman-French, and led to the introduction of *g* before it, to preserve the guttural pronunciation (as *night* for *niht*, *might* for *miht*). But the guttural sound died out all the same, and *gh* came to be regarded as little more than a sign that the preceding *i* must be sounded long. Hence it was inserted even in words that had no claim to a guttural of any kind,† as in *sprightly* (compare *sprite*). The passing of the guttural **gh** into the sound of **f** is interesting. It was once more common than now; *e.g.*, *daughter* was pronounced *dafter* (like *laughter*).

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* In many cases mute *e* makes its appearance not because it has been put in to show that the preceding vowel is long, but because, having been once itself *syllabic*, it has been made mute owing to the lengthening of the previous vowel; thus *nāma* became *nāmĕ* and then *nāme*.

† Spenser even uses *whight* (= *whiite*) and *spight* (= *spite*). See Earle's *Philology of the English Tongue*, p. 126. In More's *Utopia*, *haughty* is spelt *hawte*. It is from the French *hautain*.

ACCENT.

23. Emphasis is the utterance of one word in a sentence with more force than the rest to give prominence to the idea which it conveys.

Accent is a stress laid upon one syllable of a word of two or more syllables, as *ténder*, *mísery*, *indécent*. Words of several syllables may have two or even three accented syllables, as *démocrátical*, *láti-túdinárian*.

In English two systems of accentuation have been at work, the Teutonic or genuine English, and the French. The characteristic tendency of Teutonic accentuation is to throw the stress upon the root-syllable of a word, and leave the inflexions and formative syllables unaccented,* as *lóve*, *lóver*, *lóveliness*. In French the accentuation naturally, in the first instance, followed that of Latin, which was not etymological but rhythmical, so that the accent often shifted its position with an alteration in the number of the syllables, falling on the penult (or last syllable but one) if it was long, or on the ante-penult (or last syllable but two) if the penult was short. Hence in old French *pastor* became *pâtre*, *pastórem* became *pasteir*. The omission of final syllables of inflexion in French often left the accent on the last syllable, even when that was not the root-syllable. Thus *virtútem* became *virtú*; *civitátem cité*.

When such words first passed from French into English they naturally had their French accent, as *distánce*, *contrée* (country), *manére* (manner); *soláce*, &c. In Spenser we still find *progréss*, *succour*, *uságe*, *bondáge*, &c. Most of these adopted words, however, have been affected by the English accentuation, which tends to keep the accent away from the last syllable. In words of French or Latin origin, and of more than two syllables, there is a tendency to throw the accent back on to the ante-penult, as in *monópoly*, *geógraphy*. Thus we now say *advértisement* (not *advertísement*), *théatre* (not *theátre*), &c. French derivatives ending in *ade*, *-ier* or *-eer*, *-ee*, *-oon*, *-ine* or *-in*, keep the accent on the last syllable. So also do adjectives which are seemingly taken from Latin with the simple rejection of the final syllable, as *benign*, *robúst*, *humáne*, *políte*. The natural weight of the syllable has of course to be taken into account. Compare, for example, *cóncentrate* and *remónstrate*; *cosmógony* and *declénsion*, *benéficent* and *benefáctor*. There is also a tendency to accentuate the root-syllable of the definitive word in a compound, as *állegory*, *mélancholy*. Words which have been adopted without alteration from foreign languages keep their original accent, as *torpédo*, *coróna*, *octávo*.

The influence of accent upon the etymological changes of words has been very important. When one syllable is made prominent, those adjacent to it, especially if short and unimportant in themselves, are pronounced carelessly, and frequently get dropped altogether. Thus we get *bishop* from *episcopus*, *reeve* from *gerefa*, *sample* from *example*. English has thus lost most of its syllabic suffixes.

When this loss takes place at the beginning of a word, it is called by grammarians *aphaeresis*, *i.e.*, 'taking away,' as in *squadron* from *escadron*; *story* from *histoire*; *stranger* from *estrangier* (*étranger*); *Spain* from *Hispania* or *Espagne*; *van* from *avant*; when it occurs at the end of a word

* In compounds in which the component parts preserve a syntactical relation to each other, the accent falls as it would if the words were kept separate, as *ill-will*, *áll-fours*, *spít-fire*, *indeéd*, *forsóoth*. &c. Nouns compounded with adverbial particles have the accent on the particle, as *óffshoot*, *áproar*. Verbs have it on the verbal root, as *out-dó*, *with-stánd*.

it is called *apocope* (cutting off); when two syllables are blent into one, the process is termed *syncope* (shortening by excision).

Examples of *syncope* are seen in *crown* from *corona*; *damsel* from *demoiselle*; *fancy* from *fantasy*; *lord* from *Hlaford*; *sheriff*, from *Scirgerefa*.

An accented syllable often gets lengthened. Thus from *hebban* we get *heave*, from *brecan*, *break*, &c.

An unaccented long syllable is apt to get shortened. Thus the adjective *minute* becomes the noun *minŭte*. Compare *cupboard*, *housewife*, &c.

ETYMOLOGY.

24. Etymology is that division of grammar which deals with separate words. It treats of their classification into the groups called Parts of Speech, of the changes of form which they undergo to mark differences in their signification or in their grammatical relations, and of the mode in which they are formed out of their constituent elements. This involves a reference to the connection which exists between words and forms in different languages which are related to each other.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

25. Words are distributed into the following eight * classes, called **Parts of Speech**:—

1. **Noun-Substantive** † (usually called **Noun**).
2. **Noun-Adjective** † (usually called **Adjective**).
3. **Pronoun.**
4. **Verb.**
5. **Adverb.**
6. **Preposition.**
7. **Conjunction.**
8. **Interjection.**

* Aristotle recognized *four* Parts of Speech, **Nouns** (including Adjectives), **Verbs** (or **Predicates**), **Conjunctions** (including apparently Prepositions and Adverbs), and **Articles**, or **Joints** (the Pronouns and the Definite Article). The Alexandrian grammarians made *eight* divisions, *Noun*, *Verb*, *Participle*, *Article*, *Pronoun*, *Preposition*, *Adverb*, and *Conjunction*. The Roman grammarians treated the *Participle* as belonging to the *Verb*, and dropped the *Article* (Latin having no Definite Article), but they divided the Noun into *Substantive* and *Adjective*, and added the *Interjection*, so as still to keep the mystic number *eight*.

† The Adjective was originally identical with the Noun, which in the infancy of language named objects by naming some attribute by which they were marked. In course of time the Adjective was developed into a separate Part of Speech, the function of which was to attach itself to the Noun. Even now it is difficult to draw the line between them, as Nouns are sometimes used attributively, and Adjectives pass by various stages into Nouns. Still the functions of the two sorts of words are now, in the main, so different that it is more convenient to treat them as two Parts of Speech, than as subdivisions of one. The extension of the term *Noun* so as to include the Adjective is of no practical value except to explain the term *Pronoun*: and the term *Substantive*, as the equivalent of *Noun-Substantive*, is objectionable, because some *Pronouns* are *Substantives*. Moreover the terms *Noun* and *Adjective* are now so familiarly used for the older *Noun-Substantive* and *Noun-Adjective*, that a good deal of confusion would result from interfering with the general custom, which will accordingly be followed in this work in all ordinary cases.

The definitions of these several Parts of Speech will be found in the sections which treat of them respectively.

These parts of speech have not at all times been equally essential elements of language. They do not stand upon the same level, some being *primary*, others *secondary*.

The cardinal elements of every sentence * are the Subject and the Predicate (see §§ 344, 376). For the expression of these we get the *primary* Parts of Speech, namely, the **Substantive** (**Noun** and **Pronoun**) and the **Verb.**

In the next rank come the **Adjective**, which limits or modifies the Substantive, and the **Adverb**, which limits or modifies the Verb.

The adverb, in course of time, was developed into the **Preposition** and the **Conjunction.**

Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions were originally for the most part nothing more than *Cases of Nouns and Pronouns*, which being restricted in practice to particular uses, hardened into separate Parts of Speech.

NOTIONAL AND RELATIONAL WORDS.

26. Words are divisible into **Notional Words** and **Relational Words.**

Notional Words are those which present to the mind a distinct conception of some thing, or of some action or attribute of a thing. To this class belong **Nouns, Qualitative Adjectives,** and **Verbs.**

Relational Words bring things before our minds, not by naming or describing them, but by indicating their relations to other things. The most important words of this class are the **Substantive Pronouns,** and the **Quantitative** and **Pronominal Adjectives.** Thus *Thou* or *He* brings a person before the mind by indicating his relation to *Me*.

Adverbs are partly *notional* (as *wisely, brightly*), partly *relational* (as *now, thus, whence*). **Prepositions** and **Conjunctions** are only relational, the former with respect to *things*, the latter with respect to *thoughts*.

It thus appears that Substantives and Adjectives admit of the following classification :—

Substantives	**1. Notional (Nouns).** **2. Relational (Substantive Pronouns).†**
Adjectives	**1. Notional (Qualitative Adjectives).** **2. Relational (Quantitative and Pronominal Adjectives).**

Both Verbs and Adjectives express notions of the actions and attributes of things. Verbs *assert* the connection of the thing and its action or attribute ; Adjectives *assume* this connection. To borrow a metaphor from Mechanics, the Verb is a *Dynamic Attributive*, the Adjective is a *Static Attributive*.

IMPERFECT SEPARATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH IN ENGLISH.

27. In English the same word (that is to say, the same combination

* That is as regards languages of so advanced a type as the Aryan. There are forms of language (Polynesian) which have not advanced so far as to have a verb.

† Beginners must beware of the mistake of supposing than *any* and *every* substantive word (such as *he, who, that*, &c.) may be called a *noun*.

of letters) often belongs to more than one Part of Speech.* Thus *iron* is a noun in 'A piece of *iron*,' an adjective in 'An *iron* tool,' and a verb in 'The laundresses *iron* the shirts'; *early* is an adjective in 'The *early* rose,' an adverb in 'He came *early*.' †

It will be shown in the Syntax how the functions of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs are often sustained by combinations of words forming *clauses* or *phrases*; but only a *single word* can properly be said to be a *noun*, *adjective*, or *adverb*.

INFLEXION.

28. Inflexion (Latin *inflectere*, 'to bend') is a change made in the form of a word either to mark some modification of the notion which the word stands for, or to show the relation of the word to some other word in the sentence.

Inflexion is now of two kinds.

1. Some inflexions consist in **the addition of certain letters** to a word, as *book, books; pant, panted.* What is thus added is called a suffix (Latin *suffixus*, 'fixed on'). These suffixes were once significant words, but gradually lost their full form and meaning.

2. Some inflexions (in certain verbs) consist in **a change in the vowel sound,** caused by first doubling a root syllable, and then blending the two sounds together, as in *fight, fought; find, found.*

3. The addition of a suffix often caused **the vowel** of a preceding syllable to be **weakened** (compare *nātion* and *nătional, vain* and *vanity*). This change often remained when the suffix was lost, as in *man, men; feed, fed.* What we thus get is only a spurious inflexion.

Nouns and **Pronouns** are inflected to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case.** Inflexion for **Case** (singular and plural) is called **Declension.**

Adjectives and **Adverbs** are inflected to mark **degree.** This inflexion is called **Comparison.**

Verbs are inflected to mark **Mood, Tense, Number,** and **Person.** This inflexion is called **Conjugation.**

Prepositions, Conjunctions, and **Interjections,** are not inflected.

That portion of a word which it has in common with other words that relate to the same notion, is called the **Root.**

The **Stem** (or **Crude Form**) of an inflected word is that portion of the word upon which the inflexions are based.‡

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* This is mainly due to the fact that in English *roots stripped of inflexions* often do duty for *words*. A *root-word* like *love* is not in itself either *noun* or *verb*, and may be used as either. But the same freedom does not exist in the case of words like *wisdom, blithesome, strengthen*, in which roots have been differentiated into Parts of Speech by means of formative elements.

† All this shows how much of the meaning which we attach to what we hear or read is left unexpressed by the actual words, and is put in by our own intelligence as guided by the context.

‡ The *stem* of a word should properly consist of the root modified by some suffix or letter-change into a noun or verb; and on this stem the grammatical inflexions should be based. Thus in Latin the root *am* is made into the verb-stem *amā-* and the noun-stem *amor-*. In English *digger* and *ditch* are both *stems* formed from the root *dig*. But in modern English, in a great number of instances, stems have been so worn down that they no longer differ from roots.

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Some writers of authority restrict the term Inflexion to those changes which constitute Declension and Conjugation.

NOUN.*

29. The word **Noun** means **name** (Latin *nomen*). **A noun** is a word used as the **name** of something.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

30. Nouns are divided into two principal classes:—

1. Common Nouns. **2. Proper Nouns.**

I.—COMMON NOUNS.

31. A common noun (Latin *communis*, 'shared by several') is a word that is the name of each thing out of a class of things of the same kind, as *horse*, *stone*, *city*, or of any portion of a quantity of stuff of the same sort, as *wheat*, *iron*, *water*.

A common noun is so called because the name belongs *in common* to all the individual things in the class, or to all the portions into which the whole quantity of stuff may be divided.

A common noun distinguishes what belongs to some class or sort from everything which does not belong to it. Thus the name *horse* distinguishes that animal from all other sorts of things, but does not distinguish one horse from another.

32. Common Nouns are subdivided into:—

1. Ordinary Class Names.
2. Collective Nouns.
3. Abstract Nouns.

An **Ordinary Class Name** is one that **belongs to each individual of a class, or to each portion of some sort of material,** as *horse*, *tree*, *water*, *marble*. Names of materials are used in the plural when different sorts of the material are spoken of, as 'teas,' 'sugars,' &c.

A **Collective Noun** is one which in the singular stands for **one collection of several individual things**, as *herd*, *multitude*. In the plural it stands for several such *collections*.

An **Abstract Noun** is **the name of a quality, action,** or **state,** as *hardness*, *running*, *growth*, *sleep*. As **Arts** and **Sciences** are in fact *processes of thought and action*, their names are **Abstract Nouns**, as *astronomy*, *logic*, *grammar*.

33. Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives (as *hardness* from *hard*),

* See Note on § 25, p. 17

from verbs (as *growth* from *grow*), or from nouns that denote a function or state (as *priesthood* from *priest*, *widowhood* from *widow*). The infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun.

That which is denoted by an Abstract Noun has no independent existence, but is only *thought of* by itself, the quality being 'drawn off' (Latin *abstractus*) in thought from that to which it belongs.

An abstract noun is a common noun, because it stands for *every instance* of the quality or action that it denotes.

Abstract nouns are sometimes used in the *concrete* sense, that is, standing for that which possesses the quality which they denote. Thus *nobility* frequently means the whole body of *persons of noble birth*; *youth*, the whole class of *young people*. Compare the double sense of *witness*, *relation*, *painting*, *sculpture*, *nature*, *vision*, &c.

There is a class of nouns which are sometimes confounded with abstract nouns, and which in reality do not differ from them very widely. These are *Significant* (or *Connotative*) *General Names*, such as *Space*, *Time*, &c.

34. Common nouns are *significant*. They not only *denote*, or mark out, the objects to which they are applied, but also *connote*, or *note at the same time*, the whole combination of marks or attributes, through their possession of which the various individuals named by the common noun are grouped into one class.

II.—PROPER NOUNS.

35. A **Propor Noun** is a word used as the name of some particular person, animal, place, or thing, as *John*, *London*, *Bucephalus*, *Excalibur*. The word *proper* (Latin *proprius*) means *own*. A *proper name* is a person's or thing's **own name.**

Proper nouns are written with a capital letter at the beginning.

36. Proper nouns, as *such*, are not now significant. Even if the name, considered merely as a word, has a meaning, it is not applied to the object which it denotes in consequence of that meaning. *Margaret* means *pearl*, but it is not implied that a person called *Margaret* has *pearly* qualities. Many proper names, however, such as *Snowdon*, *Blackwater*, *Newcastle*, were at first *descriptive*, as was in fact also the case with names of persons, which, if not actually descriptive, had a prophetic or optative character.

37. Proper nouns are sometimes used like common nouns, when they denote classes or collections of persons grouped together because they resemble each other in certain attributes that marked some individual, as if we say of a poet, 'He was the Homer of his age,' or of a strong man, that he is 'a Hercules,' or speak of 'the Howards,' meaning philanthropists like Howard.

When a proper name belongs to several persons, it may be used in the plural, but is still a proper name, as 'the *Georges*,' 'the *Caesars*.'

INFLEXIONS OF NOUNS.

38. Nouns are inflected to mark Gender, Number, and Case, though these distinctions are not always marked by inflexion.

GENDER.

39. Living beings are divided into two classes or *sexes*, the **male sex** and the **female* sex**, the individuals in the one sex corresponding to those in the other. Things without life are not of either sex. Thus all things are arranged in three classes—**things of the male sex, things of the female sex,** and **things of neither sex.**

40. In like manner, nouns are divided into three† classes or sorts called **Genders,** which correspond to the three classes of things just mentioned. These are the **Masculine Gender,** the **Feminine Gender,** and the **Neuter Gender.** *Gender* comes from the Latin *genus*, 'a kind or sort.'

The name of anything of the **male sex** is called a **masculine noun,** or a noun of the **masculine gender** (Latin *masculinus*, 'belonging to a male').

The name of anything of the **female sex** is called a **feminine noun,** or a noun of the **feminine gender** (Latin *femininus*, 'belonging to a female').

The name of anything of **neither sex** is called a **neuter noun,** or a noun of the **neuter gender** ‡ (Latin *neuter*, 'neither').

Man, king, father, horse, cock, bull, James, are masculine nouns.
Woman, mother, mare, hen, cow, Mary, Jane, are feminine nouns.
Stone, tree, house, London, are neuter nouns.

> In the case of animals and young children we often take no account of the sex, but refer to them by means of *neuter pronouns.*

41. The names of animals sometimes do not indicate their sex,§ as *sheep, bird, hawk, bear, mouse, raven, swan, dove.* Also various names of persons, as *parent, spouse, servant,* &c. Such nouns are said

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* The word *female* is not connected etymologically with *male*. *Male* is a contraction of *masculus*. *female* is a corruption of *femella*, a diminutive of *femina*, assimilated in form to *male* through confusion.

† Nothing is gained either in convenience or in philosophy by the attempt to restrict the term *gender* to the *masculine* and the *feminine*. Those who run the term *neuter* so hard as this should be consistent, and translate it into *neither* when they use it. To talk of nouns being of *Neuter Gender* (especially with a capital N) is not good Latin, good English, or good sense. German grammarians, who have the terms *männlich, weiblich,* and *sächlich,* are spared the temptation to air this little crotchet. In inflected languages such as Latin, Greek, and German, the neuter gender has its own distinctive marks, and is not indicated merely by the absence of the marks for masculine and feminine.

‡ It is only in modern English, however, that this simple classification is observed. In Latin, Greek, French, and other languages, the names of many things which do not belong either to the male or to the female sex, are either masculine or feminine. When this is the case, gender ceases to answer (except partially) to any *natural* distinction, and becomes merely *grammatical,* though originally, no doubt, based upon a real, or fancied, natural distinction. A noun is known to be masculine (or feminine), not by its denoting a thing of the male (or female) sex, but by its having associated with it adjectives and pronouns with masculine (or feminine) terminations. This arbitrary, or merely grammatical gender has disappeared from modern English. In Anglo-Saxon, the genders were to a great extent merely grammatical or arbitrary, as in Latin. Even *wîf* (woman) was neuter.

§ But in poetry, fables, or lively narratives, animals are treated as male or female, even when the name is of common gender, with a general tendency to consider the larger and fiercer animals as male, and the gentler and more timid as female.

to be of common or undetermined gender.* Some masculine nouns (as *horse*, *dog*), and some feminine (as *duck*, *goose*), are often used to denote either sex.

42. Things without life are often *personified*, or spoken of as if they were living beings of the male or female sex. Accordingly masculine and feminine pronouns are used in speaking of them.

Thus the Sun,† Time, Day, Death, rivers, winds, mountains, the ocean, the seasons, the stronger passions (as Fear, Anger, Despair), actions connected with strength or violence (as Murder, War, &c.), are spoken of as male persons.

The Moon, the Earth, Virtue, Night, a ship, countries and cities—such as Europe, England, Paris—Night, Darkness, the Arts and Sciences, most abstract conceptions, as Nature, Liberty, Charity, Victory, Mercy, Religion, &c., the Soul, the gentler emotions, &c., are spoken of as female persons.‡

43. ✗ *Sex* is a distinction between *things*, not between *names*. *Gender* is a distinction between *names*, not between *things*. It is therefore wrong to speak of the *masculine sex* or the *male gender:* to speak of a man as a *masculine being*, or to talk of *things* being of the masculine or feminine gender. *Things* may be of the male or female *sex*, but only *words* can be of the masculine, feminine, or neuter *gender*.

MODES OF DENOTING GENDER.

44. The sex of living beings is indicated in three ways—

First Mode.—Quite different words are used,§ as :—

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Bachelor	maid *or* spinster	Horse	mare
Boar	sow	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Broth	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull	cow	Milter	spawner
Bullock *or* steer	heifer	Monk *or* friar	nun
Cock	hen	Nephew	niece
Colt *or* foal	filly	Papa	mamma
Dog	bitch	Ram *or* wether	ewe
Drake	duck	Sir	madam
Drone	bee	Sire	dame *or* dam ‖
Father	mother	Sloven	slut
Gander	goose	Son	daughter
Gentleman	lady	Stag	hind
Hart	roe *or* hind	Uncle	aunt
		Wizard	witch

* But if there is anything to show the sex of the person denoted by the noun, the noun is treated as being masculine or feminine accordingly, and a masculine or feminine pronoun is used to replace it. Such a plural as *parents* is of necessity *common*. These nouns are usually of Romance origin.

† In Anglo-Saxon (as in German) '*sun*' was feminine.

‡ The gender employed in personification is rather arbitrary. Usage is not uniform.

§ Strictly speaking this does not constitute *grammatical* gender. There is nothing in the form of the words to show for which sex they stand.

‖ *Grandam* (*grannam* or *granny*) answers to *grandsire*. *Sire* and *dam*, in contrast with each other, are applied only to animals.

Man (like the German *Mensch*) was formerly used of the female as well as of the male. We see this in the compound *woman*, a modified form of *wimman—i.e.*, *wifman*. The vowel sound of the first syllable is still preserved in the plural, *women*.

Maid,* in Chaucer's time was applied to a grown-up person of either sex. Thus, 'I wot well that the apostle was a maid.' *Girl* (a diminutive of the Low German *gör*) once denoted a young person of either sex.†

Father ‡ means 'one who feeds;' from the same root as *fee-d* and *fa-t* (compare *pa-ter* and *pa-sco*). *Mother* is from a root *ma*—'bring forth' (*Morris*). *Daughter* (Gr. θυγάτηρ) meant originally 'milk-maid.' The root is the same as in *dug*. *Brother* signifies 'one who *bears* or supports' (Fick, *Vergl. Wört.* vii. 204).

Husband (A.S. *hûsbonda*) is the manager or *master of the house* (*Mätzner*). In A.S. *buan* means 'to inhabit, or cultivate.'

In *husbandman* and *husbandry* we have vestiges of the old meaning. In Anglo-Saxon *wîf* (neuter) meant simply a *woman*.

Nephew and *niece* come to us (through French) from the Latin *nepos* (*nepot-is*) and *neptis*. The older Anglo-Saxon words were *nefa* and *nefe*. *Uncle* and *aunt* are from *avunculus* and *amita*. The provincial and colloquial appellations *gaffer* and *gammer* are corruptions of *godfather* and *godmother*.

Queen (or *quean*) meant simply *female* or *mother*. In Anglo-Saxon *cwén-fugel* means *hen-bird*.

Lord is a shortened form of hlâford (*i.e.*, *hlâfweard*, 'loaf-warden,' or 'bread-dispenser' (*Mätzner* and *Koch*). *Lady* (*hlæfdige*) is from the same word *hlâf*, but the meaning of the second part is uncertain. Some connect it with the Gothic verb *digan* or *deigan*, 'to knead' (Skeat, *Et. Dict.*). *Sir* or *sire* is from *senior*; *madam* from *mea-domina*; *monk* from *monachus*, 'one who leads a solitary life'; *nun* = *nonna*, 'grandmother.' *Friar* is from *frater* (Fr. *frère*).

Witch is now only feminine, but it might come indifferently from the Anglo-Saxon masculine § *wicca*, or from the feminine *wicce*. *Wizard* comes from the Scandinavian *viskr*, 'wise,' through the old French *guiscart*, and means 'a very wise man' (*Mätzner*). See '*Etymology: Adjective Suffixes.*'

Drake (old Norse *andriki*; root *and* = Lat. *anat*; *riki*, connected with German *reich*, and Latin *reg-em*) means 'king of the ducks.' *Duck* is connected with the verb *duck*, 'to dive.' In Anglo-Saxon we find a masculine *hana*, 'cock' (Germ. *Hahn*). *Goose* has lost the letter *n* (Germ. *Gans*). *Gander* is formed from the feminine, *d* being only an öffgrowth of the *n*. *Goose* is often used as a masculine, especially as a descriptive epithet, as 'Tom is a goose.' *Geese* is of common gender.

Bee is now of common gender, but was originally feminine.

45. Second Mode—Inflexion.—Gender is indicated by the termination of the word.

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* *Maid* is a short form of *maiden*, a diminutive of *maigeð*, from 'mæg' 'a growing youth,' *f.* 'mæge' (root *mag*) Skeat, *Et. Dict. s. v.*

† Thus Chaucer (*Prol.* 664) "The yonge gurles of the diocise." In *Piers Plowman*, i. 29, Lot's sons are spoken of as 'gerles that were churles.'

‡ Or (according to other authorities) 'the defender,' 'he who guards the flock' (Fick, *Vergl. Wört.* i. 132).

§ "He is such a holy witch, that he enchants societies unto him."—(Shaksp. *Cymb* i. 7.)

A. Different suffixes are used for the masculine and the feminine.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Murderer	murderess
Caterer	cateress
Governor	governess
Emperor	empress
Sorcerer	sorceress

The termination **–er** (in Anglo-Saxon **–ere**) is a true English suffix. The corresponding feminine suffix was **–ster** (A.S. **–estre**) as *m. bæcere, f. bæcestre* (*baker*) ; *m. hoppere* (*dancer*), *f. hoppestre*. **Spinster** still preserves the feminine force of the suffix. Many words in *–ster* now used as masculine (or common), or as proper names, once denoted occupations carried on by women, as *maltster, tapster* ('*bar-maid*'), *Baxter* (from *bake*), *Webster* (from *webban* 'to weave'), &c. *Seamstress* and *songstress* are double feminines. The suffix *–er* has now ceased to be exclusively masculine.

In Anglo-Saxon **–a** was a masculine suffix and **–e** a feminine suffix, as **nefa, nefe** (nephew, niece), **webba** (male weaver), **webbe** (female weaver).

B. The feminine is formed from the masculine by feminine suffixes.

1. The commonest of these, and the only one by which fresh feminines can be formed is **-ess**, as *count, countess; mayor, mayoress.*

This termination came to us through French, from the Latin suffix *issa*. (Compare Gr. **ισσα** and **εσσα**)

When this suffix is added to the masculine terminations *or* and *er*, the vowel is usually omitted, as in *actor, actress; hunter, huntress*. The masculines *author, mayor, prior*, and *tutor*, suffer no abbreviation. The *o* of *negro* and the *y* of *votary* are dropped (*negress, votaress*).

Abbess (from *abbot*) is a shortened form of *abbadess*. *Lass* is probably from *laddess*. *Duchess* follows the French form *duchesse*. In *mistress* the *a* of *master* is modified through the influence of the suffix (See § 28).

2. One word, *vixen*, the feminine of *fox*, preserves the old Teutonic ·nine suffix, *en* or *in* (compare German *inn*), the root vowel of the ·uline being modified (§ 28). (Compare German *Fuchs, Füchsinn*).

oldest English we find such feminines as *gyden*, 'goddess;' *·cen*, 'nun' (from *munec*); *elfen*, 'female elf,' &c. So in Scotch, we have *carlin*, 'old woman.'

The suffixes **-trix** (as in *testatrix*), **-ine** (as in *heroine*), **-a** (as in *sultana*), **-ina** (as in *czarina*), do not belong to English grammar, but are foreign importations.

Widower is perhaps a masculine formed from a feminine, or *–er* may represent the A.S. suffix *a* (masc. *widuwa*, fem. *widuwe*). *Bride-groom* is merely a compound noun, *groom* * = *goom* = *guma*, 'man' (*Anglo-Saxon*).

* The *r* of *bride* has dragged in the other *r* after it. So *cartouche* has become *cartridge*, *caporal* has become *corporal*

46. **Third Mode.**—Masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns are prefixed or affixed to nouns of common gender.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Man-servant	maid-servant	Dog-fox	bitch-fox
Man-singer	woman-singer	He-goat	she-goat
He-devil	she-devil		ewe-lamb
Boar-pig	sow-pig	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	Guinea-cock	guinea-hen
Bull-calf	cow-calf	Turkey-cock	turkey-hen
Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	Roebuck	

Sometimes proper names are used to answer this purpose, as in *jack-ass, jenny-ass; tom-cat, tib-cat; billy-goat, nanny-goat; jackdaw.* In Anglo-Saxon, *carl* and *cwen* were used, as *carl-fugel* (*cock-fowl*), *cwen-fugel* (*hen-fowl*).

NUMBER.

47. **Number** is a variation in form which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

48. There are now* two numbers in English, the **Singular** and the **Plural.** The **Singular Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of one of the things for which the noun stands, as *ship, horse, herd.* The **Plural Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **more than one** of that for which the noun stands, as *ships, horses, herds.*

As it is simpler to think and speak of one thing than of several things at once, the singular is the original form of the noun.

MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL.

49. **First Mode.**—By adding the syllable **es** shortened to **s** whenever the pronunciation admits of it. The full syllable *es* is now added only when the singular ends in a sibilant (*s, sh,* soft *ch, x* or *z*), as *gas, gases; lash, lashes; witch, witches; box, boxes; topaz, topazes.*† Words like *horse, horses* really come under this rule.

The letters **es** are also added (but without being sounded as a separate syllable) after several‡ words ending in **o**, as *hero, heroes; potato, potatoes;* in the word *alkalies;* after **y** when it is preceded by a con-

* Formerly our language had a *dual* number, in the personal pronouns used in speaking of *two* persons. The *dual* is probably older than the plural, and took its rise at a time when our primitive forefathers could not count beyond *two.*

† Though we write *-es,* it is sounded like *-is* or *-ys,* which we find in Wycliffe and in the Scotch dialect, and sometimes in Chaucer. Plurals like *woundes, handes,* are not uncommon in Spenser.

‡ The usage in the case of words ending in *o* is arbitrary, and by no means uniform, *es* being commonly added. But *s* only is added to words ending in *io* and *oo,* and to the following words:—*domino, virtuoso, tyro, quarto, octavo, duodecimo, mosquito, canto, grotto, solo, rondo.*

sonant, the **y** being changed to **i**, as *lady, ladies* *; and after words of Anglo-Saxon origin ending in **lf** or **f** preceded by any long vowel sound except **oo**. In these cases the flat sound which *s* always has in *es* affects the preceding consonant, and **f** is changed to **v**, as *elf, elves; shelf, shelves; leaf, leaves; thief, thieves; loof, loaves. Wife* and *knife* get *f* changed to *v* in a similar way—*wives, knives.* Nouns ending in **oof, ff**, and **rf**, and nouns in **f** of Norman-French origin, retain the hard sound of the *f*, which causes the *s* to take the hard sound, as *roof, roofs; cliff, cliffs; dwarf, dwarfs; chief, chiefs.* So also *reef, fife*, and *strife. Beef, beeves;* and *staff, staves*, are exceptions in modern English *Wharves, turves, scarves* are found in the older writers.

50. All nouns except those above mentioned, and the few nouns which form their plurals in the second and third modes hereafter specified, have their plurals formed by the addition of **s** only, as *book; books; father, fathers;* the **s** having its **sharp sound** after a **sharp mute** (as in *books, cats, traps*), and **its flat sound** (*z*) after a **flat mute**, a **liquid**, or a **vowel** † (as in *tubs, eggs, pails, rams, fleas*).

When **y** at the end of a word is preceded by a vowel, **s** is added to form the plural, and the **y** is not changed, as *valley, valleys; boy, boys. Qu* counts as a consonant; hence *soliloquy, soliloquies.*

51. The plural suffix *-es* is a modification of the Anglo-Saxon plural suffix *-as.* The latter, however, was only one of several modes of forming the plural, and was used only for masculine nouns. The influence of Norman-French caused the general adoption of *-es* or *-s* as the plural suffix of all kinds of nouns. The usage first became prevalent in the Northern dialect.

51*a*. The plurals of proper names, and of words belonging to other parts of speech used as substantives, are formed by most writers in the ordinary way (as '*the Smiths*,' '*the Percies*,' *ayes, noes, extras*), by some by the addition of *'s* ('*the Percy's*,' *the pro's and con's*, &c.).

52. Second Mode.—By adding **en**, as *ox, oxen; cow, kine;* ‡ *brother, brethren* ‡; *child, children.* ‡ Formerly more common. §

53. Third Mode.—By **changing** the **vowel sound** ‖ of the word, as *tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; foot, feet; goose, geese; man, men* (see § 28).

The second and third modes of forming the plural are restricted to a few nouns of Anglo-Saxon origin.

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* In words of this kind it is more accurate to say that *ie* has been changed in the singular into *y*; as the old English way of spelling the words in the singular was *ladie, glorie*, &c. In proper names some writers retain the *y* in the plural.

† In Chaucer nouns of Romance origin often have a plural in *z*, as *heraldz* (*Kn. T.* 1741), *vestimentz* (*Kn. T.* 2090).

‡ These words are double plurals, *kine* being formed from *cy* (Scotch *kye*), the old Anglo-Saxon plural; *children* from *childer* (A.S. *cildru*), still used as a provincial form; *brethren* from *brether*, the plural form in the Northern dialect. In A.S. the plural was *brothru.*

§ Chaucer has *doughteren* and *sistren.* We find *shoon* in Shakspeare (*Haml.* iv. 5), *eyne* or *een* (= *eyes*) in Scott and Byron. *Assen, treen, been, fon* (= *foes*), also occur in old writers. The Southern dialect was more tenacious of these plurals than the Northern.

‖ Originally there was nothing distinctively plural in the change of vowel. The forms *men, tēt, brether* were used in the dative singular in A.S.

54. Fourth Mode.—By leaving the singular unchanged, as *sheep, deer, grouse, fish,** *head* (as in "ten *head* of cattle"), *yoke, year, pound.* Most of these words were neuter in A.S. and had no plural suffix.

55. The plural is often the same as the singular in nouns expressing a **quantity** or **number**, as "The stone weighs ten *hundred-weight*"; "He shot five *brace* of birds"; "Ten *gross* of buttons"; "He weighs eleven *stone*"; "Three *dozen* knives"; "Two *pair* of boots"; Four *score* years"; "Thirty *fathom*"; "Ten *mile*" (*Shaksp.*). *Month, winter, night, shilling, mark* formerly had the plural like the singular. We still say "a twelve*month*," "a fort*night*." Compare "a three-*foot* rule"; "a five-*pound* note"; "a three-*penny* book."

Horse and *foot* (for *horse*-soldiers and *foot-soldiers*), *shot*,† *cannon*, like *fish, fowl, people*, are collective nouns.

Plurals of foreign words.—These generally retain their own proper plurals. Thus—

(1.) In Latin words

Nouns in	**us**	(masculine)	form the plural in	**i**,	as *focus, foci*,
,,	**us**	(neuter)	,, ,,	**era**,	as *genus, genera.*
,,	**um**	,,	,, ,,	**a**,	as *datum, data.*‡
,,	**a**	,,	,, ,,	**æ**,	as *formula, formulæ.*
,,	**ix** or **ex**	,,	,, ,,	**ices**,	as *radix, radices.*
,,	**ies**	,,	,, ,,	**ies**,	as *series.*

(2.) In Greek words

Nouns in	**on**	form the plural in		**a**,	as *phenomenon, phenomena*,
,,	**sis**	,,	,,	**ses**,	as *crisis, crises; basis, bases.*
,,	**ma**	,,	,,	**mata**,	as *miasma, miasmata.*

(3.) *Cherub* and *seraph* (Heb.) make *cherubim and seraphim; bandit* makes *banditti; beau* (Fr.), *beaux; madame, mesdames; mister* (*i.e.*, master), *messieurs; virtuoso* (Ital.), *virtuosi.*

56. If a foreign word has passed into common use, the plural may be formed in the English fashion, as *cherubs, bandits, dogmas.*

57. Double Plurals.—Some nouns have two plurals, which differ in meaning, as :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
Brother.....	brothers (*by birth*).....	brethren (*of a community*)
Cloth.....	cloths (*kinds of cloth*)	clothes (*garments*)
Die.....	dies (*for coining*).....	dice (*for play*)
Fish.....	fishes (*regarded separately*)....	fish (*collective*)
Genius.....	geniuses (*men of talent*)	genii (*spirits*)
Index.....	indexes (*tables of contents*)	indices (*in Algebra*)
Pea §.....	peas (*regarded separately*).....	pease (*collective*)
Penny	pennies (*separate coins*)	pence (*sum of money*)
Shot.....	shots (*discharges*).....	shot (*balls*)

* Also the names of several sorts of fish, as *cod, salmon, trout, pike*, &c. Others, as *shark, whale, herring, eel, turbot*, &c., form plurals as usual.

† *Shots* means *discharges*, not *missiles.*

‡ So *animalculum*, pl. *animalcula; effluvium, effluvia; arcanum, arcana; addenda; errata; strata.*

§ The singular *pea* has been made out of the collective word *pease*, mistaken for plural and then the plural *peas* has been made from *pea.*

58. Plurals used as singulars.—

1. Words in **-ics** from Greek adjectives, as *mathematics.**
2. Certain words, as *means, amends, wages, pains*, are usually preceded by a singular demonstrative (*this, that*) and by *much* or *little* (not *many*, or *few*), but may be followed by a verb in the plural, as 'Means were found,' 'Pains were taken,' 'Wages have risen.' *News* is now † always singular. *Small-pox* (sing. *pock*, dimin. *pocket*) is a plural in origin. *Gallows* is used as singular.

59. Plurals in appearance.—

Riches (Fr. *richesse*, and so in Chaucer), *alms* (A.S. *ælmesse*, from ἐλεημοσύνη), *eaves* (A.S. *efese*), *summons* (old French *semonse*) are not plurals, but have been mistaken for such.

60. Nouns used only in the Plural.—Names of things which are double or multiform are used only in the plural, as—

1. Instruments or articles of dress made double, as *scissors, tongs, breeches, drawers.*
2. Portions of the body, certain diseases, games, ceremonies, &c., usually regarded as *aggregates* of a number of parts, as *entrails, measles, billiards, nuptials, matins, ashes, stocks.*

61. Many plurals have a secondary signification which does not belong to the singular, as *compasses, matins, vespers, pains, corns, effects* (property), *grounds* (dregs), *respects, parts* (capacity), *stocks, spectacles, letters* (literature), *draughts, returns, gripes, grains, lists, lights, returns, shrouds* (of a ship), *vapours* (ill humour), &c. *Hangings, leavings, sweepings*, &c., denote the product of the action denoted by the singular. Sometimes the singular denotes a substance, the plural things made of it, as *leads, sands, silks, coppers, irons.*

62. Abstract nouns and **names of materials** may be used in the plural to denote **different instances** or **varieties** of the quality or substance referred to, as *affinities, negligences, sugars, wines.*

It is (strictly speaking) incorrect to use a plural of the word *folk*, as it is a noun of multitude, and in the singular stands for *several persons*. We should write '*folk* say,' not '*folks* say.' Still the plural use is of long standing.

63. Plurals of Compound Nouns.—Compounds of a noun and an attributive word or phrase, in which the parts are not fused together into a single word, annex the plural inflexion to the noun, as *courts-martial, fathers-in-law.* Similar compounds of two nouns inflect both parts, as *knights-templars, men-servants.* Compounds in which the fusion of the two parts is complete have the *s* at the end, as *handfuls, rosetrees*, &c.

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* Some have supposed that the different use of the singular *logic* and the plural *mathematics*, &c., has arisen from the fact that in the former we have adopted the Greek singular ἡ λογικὴ (τέχνη), and in the latter the neuter plural τὰ μαθηματικά. This explanation of the use of the singular is, of course, correct, but as applied to the plural it is far-fetched and unnecessary. It is doubtful whether the first man who spoke of having the *rheumatics* thought he was representing the plural τὰ ῥευματικά. When adjectives are converted into substantives, it is the tendency of our language to use the plural form. A man talks of having *the rheumatics*, just as in country districts they talk of having *the dumps* or *the dismals*, "Let them die that age and *sullens* have." (Shakspeare, *R. II.* ii. 1.) English freely allows the use of adjectives as substantives, provided the plural be employed, as *eatables, valuables, greens, sweets.*

† In Shakspeare "These ill news" (*Much Ado* II. 1, 180); "The amazing news of Charles at once were spread" (*Dryden*).

It is usual to say 'The Miss Smiths,' not 'The Misses Smith.'* The latter is correct, but is considered pedantic.

CASE.

64. Things stand in various relations to other things and to their actions and attributes. Nouns have corresponding relations to nouns, verbs, and adjectives. These relations are marked by making nouns assume different forms, called **Cases.**

65. Definition.—Case is the form † in which a noun (or pronoun) is used, in order to show the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence.

66. The relations of things which were first marked in language were probably their simple relations in space—*motion from*, *motion to*, and *rest in*. These were the ideas originally expressed by the **genitive**, the **accusative**, and the **dative** respectively.‡ By analogy these cases were extended in meaning, so as to include other less obvious relations, and when they were found insufficient, additional forms (or *cases*) were invented. In the Indo-European languages we find at various stages seven cases (excluding the Vocative, which is not properly a case at all,§ since it does not bring the noun into grammatical relation to any other word), the **Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Locative, Accusative, Ablative,** and **Instrumental.** The somewhat vague import of the different cases, arising out of their wide application, led to the use of prepositions, by which definiteness was given to the vague sense conveyed by the case itself (see the section on 'Prepositions' further on), and the use of prepositions in its turn rendered some of the cases

* So in Shakspeare 'Three Doctor Faustuses' (*Merry W.* IV. 5, 71). 'One of the Miss Flamboroughs' (*Goldsmith*). "Miss-Smith" must be regarded as a compound name. If there is no definite article, we must have the plural *Misses*, as "Misses Jane and Mary Smith." So also we say "The Mr. Smiths," but "Messieurs John and George Smith."

† Some writers have misunderstood the term 'Case' (Latin *casus*) as meaning 'state' or 'condition.' This is quite wrong. *Casus* was the Latin translation of the Greek word πτωσις, which means 'falling.' This word was first used by Aristotle to denote a *modification of form* either in nouns or in verbs. Even the formation of an adverb from an adjective was called *ptosis* by him. In nouns he used the term ὄνομα (onoma), i.e. *noun* or *name*, for what we call the nominative, and applied the term *'fallings'* to the other cases, which he did not distinguish from each other by special names. The word *'ptosis'* had nothing to do with the "falling or resting of one word on another"; it denoted the 'fall' of a word 'from a certain standard form.' The Stoics called this standard form the 'straight' or 'upright,' and called the other cases (to which they gave the separate names γενική, δοτική, and αἰτιατική) the *slanting* or *oblique* falls.' Some reckoned the Vocative as an 'upright,' others as a 'slanting fall.' Of course the term 'upright fall' (*casus rectus*) was sharply criticised as self-contradictory; it was defended on the rather shuffling pretext that it denoted a 'fall' from the *general* conception in the mind to the *particular*. ("Quod a generali nomine in specialia cadit." *Priscian* V. 13.) A collection of these 'falls' was called the 'declension' or 'sloping down' of the noun.

‡ There is good reason for believing that the Nominative was not the primary case, but was of later origin than some of the rest. It will be shown hereafter that the earliest forms of predication sprang out of the use of an *oblique* case, not of the nominative. The nominative was probably based upon the subjective conception involved in the use of the pronoun 'I,' which (as we see in the case of children) is of late growth (See Sayce, '*Principles of Comp. Phil.*' p. 286). Language, in the case of children, continually 'harks back' to primitive methods.

§ In Latin and Greek the Vocative is only a weakened form of the stem or crude form, it has no case-ending of its own. Very commonly the Nominative does duty for it.

superfluous. In Latin the functions of the Locative and Instrumental cases were divided between the Dative and the Ablative; in Greek the Locative, the Instrumental and the Ablative were merged in the Genitive and Dative.

67. English was anciently a more highly inflected language than it is now (see *Hist. Introd.*). In its Anglo-Saxon stage it had five cases (at least in pronouns), the *Nominative*, *Genitive*, *Dative*, *Accusative*, *and Instrumenial*. This last was dropped in nouns. There was no *Vocative* distinct from the Nominative. There were also several declensions of nouns. Ultimately the *Dative* came to be used to do duty for the *Accusative* as well as for itself, and was called the *Objective*, and one uniform mode of marking case was adopted for all nouns. We have now only **three cases**, the *Nominative Case*, the *Possessive Case*, and the *Objective Case.* In nouns the nominative and objective cases are alike in form.*

NOMINATIVE CASE.

68. The **nominative case** is that form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used when it is the subject of a verb †; that is, when it stands for that about which something is said by means of a verb, as '**Men** build houses,' 'The **boy** was struck by his brother.' If the verb of the sentence be in the **active** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb. If the verb be in the **passive** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb. In either case **the subject stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb.** ‡

69. It answers the question made by putting *who?* or *what?* before the verb, as 'Who build houses?' 'Men.' 'Who was struck?' 'The boy.'

70. The Nominative (Latin *nominativus*, 'naming') is the **Naming Form**, and *names* either the person or thing *spoken of*, or the person or thing *spoken to*, as in 'O *solitude*, where are thy charms?' When used in the latter way it is called the **Nominative of Address**, or (by some) the **Vocative.**

* Case in English has never ceased to be fundamentally what it was in Anglo-Saxon. Nothing ought to be called a 'Case' now, which would not have been so named in Anglo-Saxon, German, Latin, &c. In none of these languages would the combination of a preposition and a substantive be called a *case*. The combination 'of John' has no more right to be called a *case* than 'of him'; and 'of him' is on a par with *de eo* (Latin) and *von ihm* (German). It was long ago pointed out that if a preposition and a noun together make a *case*, there must be as many cases as there are prepositions. The attempt to limit them to the six of the Latin grammar is futile. There is no normal or necessary number of cases in language. It does not follow, because a certain relation of ideas may be expressed in two ways, that these different ways should bear the same name.

† Such expressions as "The noun *boy* is the *nominative case* to the verb" are incorrect. A *noun* is not a *case*; and the subject of a verb is a *word* and not a *form* of a word.

‡ This definition must not be taken to mean that the Nominative Case has no other uses. The term is not a good one, because nouns in all cases *name* that for which they stand.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

71. The **possessive case** * is that form of a noun (or pronoun) which shows that something belongs to or is connected with the person or thing for which it stands. Thus in 'I saw John's book,' the possessive case *John's* shows that something (namely a book) *belongs to John.*

72. In Anglo-Saxon the Genitive Case had a very wide range of meaning, including the ideas of *separation, partition, size, age, material, time when, means, manner,* &c. The general sense of 'connected with' appears in such phrases as 'a stone's throw,' 'a day's journey,' 'my uncle's death,' &c. In the English Bible 'Thy fear' means 'the fear of thee.' So in Shakspeare 'one man's awe' (*J. Caes.*) means 'awe of one man'; 'his taking off' means 'the taking off of him.' Here the possessive answers to the Latin *objective genitive*, as in *amor pecuniae*, 'the love of money.'

73. With the exception of a few phrases, such as 'the earth's axis,' 'the moon's orbit,' the possessive inflexion is not now used (except in poetry) unless the noun denotes a person or animal, or something personified.

74. The meaning of the possessive case may be expressed by means of the preposition *of* with the objective case after it. Thus, for 'My father's house,' we may say, 'The house of my father.' But the possessive case must not be substituted for the preposition *of*, unless the *of* comes after a noun.

75. The **possessive case** in the singular number, and in those plurals which end in any other letter than *s*, is formed by adding the letter *s* with an apostrophe before it (thus, '*s*) to the nominative case; as, *John's, men's, geese's.* In those plurals which end in *s* the possessive case is indicated in writing by placing the apostrophe after the *s*, as, 'the *birds*' feathers.'

76. The Genitive or Possessive suffix in Anglo-Saxon was *-es* (still preserved in full in writing, though no longer pronounced as a syllable, in *Wednesday*, i.e. *Wodenes-day*). It was used only in masculine and neuter nouns of the Strong Declension, and in the singular number.† After a

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* The Possessive Case answers to the Genitive in Latin, &c. The name comes from the Latin *possidere* (sup. *possessum*) 'to possess.' The equivalent Greek term κτητική was one of the *aliases* of the Genitive.

The Latin grammarians have been much abused for using the term *genitivus* as the translation of γενική. Max Müller says that the latter means '*casus generalis*,' i.e., 'the case of the *genus*,' whereas *genitivus* means 'the case of origin or birth.' The Roman grammarians were not great at the philosophy of language, but it seems unlikely that they should have committed so gross a blunder under the guidance of the Greek grammarians from whom they learnt grammar; and it should be noted that one of the names given to this case by the Stoics was πατρική, which implies that it was the 'case of paternity' (See Lersch, '*Sprachphilosophie der Alten*').

† It was the Northern dialect in which *s* was first adopted as the Possessive suffix in all nouns, and in both numbers. In Anglo-Saxon and Transition English it was often omitted after words denoting family relations, and a few others. Thus Chaucer uses *fader, brother, heven*, &c., as possessives. This omission was common in the Northern dialect. The term '*Lady-day*' (compare '*Lord's-day*') has come down from the time when feminine nouns had not this suffix. So Chaucer (*Prol.* 695) says 'oure lady veyl.' As an *adverbial* formation the suffix *-es* was added to feminines in Anglo-Saxon, as in *nihtes*, 'by night.'

sibilant the vowel is sounded, though not written, as in *Thomas's*. Chaucer uses *-es*, Wycliffe *-is* or *-ys*.* The apostrophe before the *s* ('*s*) marks that the vowel of the suffix has been dropped. It is placed after plurals ending in *s*, and sometimes after a singular noun ending in a sibilant, to indicate to the eye that we have a possessive case without a suffix, as 'for conscience' sake,' 'Aeneas' son.' The use of the apostrophe is modern; Milton uses it only after a vowel, as in 'Siloa's,' 'Rhea's.' The use of it in the plural after *s* is still more recent.† The plural *books* has just as good a right to an apostrophe as the possessive *book's*, the vowel of the older suffix *-as* or *-es* having been omitted.

77. In the case of a complex name, the termination of the possessive case is only affixed to the last of the names; as "Julius Cæsar's death;" "John Thomas Smith's father." It is even usual to carry out the same principle when *one thing* is possessed by several persons; as, "John, William, and Mary's uncle;" that is, the uncle of John, William, and Mary. This practice, however, cannot be defended on grammatical principles. In compound nouns like *father-in-law*, or when a noun is followed by determinative adjuncts of any kind, as 'Henry the Eighth,' 'The Queen of England,' 'Smith the baker,' &c., the possessive sign '*s* is placed at the end,‡ as 'My father-in-law's house,' 'the Queen of England's name,' &c. We no longer allow such constructions as "It is Othello's pleasure, our noble and valiant general;" but in old English such combinations as "The emperour's mother William" were not uncommon (*Skeat*, note on Chaucer's *Sq. T.*).

78. The possessive '*s* is the only case suffix of nouns that has come down to us. The letter *s*, as the characteristic of the genitive, is of general occurrence in the Aryan languages.

OBJECTIVE CASE.

79. The objective case is that form in which a noun or pro

* The syllabic *-es* is often found in Spenser, and traces of it occur in Shakspeare, as 'whales bone' (*Love's L. L.* V. 2), 'the moones sphere' (*Mids. N. D.* II. 1). In modern Lowland Scotch it is even pronounced after plurals in *-s*, as *bairns's, farmers's*.

From the time of Ben Jonson to that of Addison the absurd notion was entertained that the possessive '*s* is an abbreviation of *his* ('The king's crown' = 'The king his crown') But the word *his* is itself the possessive case of *he*, so that, on this principle *his* = *he* + *his* = *he* + *he* + *his* = *he* + *he* + *he* + *his*, and so on *ad infinitum*. Moreover *Mary's bonnet* must be *Mary his bonnet*. It is quite true, however, that it was the practice for a long time to use such expressions as 'John Smith his book.' This arose from a pleonastic use of the pronoun for the purpose of showing the Syntax of the noun. The demonstrative pronoun was commonly thus used in early English after the indeclinable relative *that*, and in other cases (e.g., "A semely man *oure host he* was." Chaucer, *Prol.* 751). A similar idiom is found in Low German dialects. Mätzner (i. p. 315) quotes 'Vatter sin hus' (= *father his house*), 'Mutter er dôk' (= *Mother her cloth*).

† In the seventeenth century there prevailed the curious fashion of putting the apostrophe *before* the *-s* of the possessive plural (*lord's* = *lords'*; *friend's* = *friends'*), as though the plural suffix *s* had been elided. (See Wallis's and Maittaire's grammars.)

‡ This power of treating an inflected form or a complex phrase as though it were a single declinable word, and adding inflexions to it, is very remarkable in English. Thus in Anglo-Saxon the genitives of the personal pronouns were treated as pronominal adjectives and declined; an inflected infinitive was used after *to* to form the gerund (see *Gerund* § 106) and even such a compound as *nâthwylc* (ne wat hwylc = I know not which), has suffixes like an ordinary adjective, as "in niðsele nâthwylcum," 'in I-know-not-what dwelling.' Dr. Murray gives as good Lowland Scotch "That it's the-man-that-you-met-yesterday's daughter."

noun is used when it **stands for the object of the action** spoken of in some verb, or when it comes **after a preposition.** In the sentence, 'The stone struck the boy,' the word *boy*, which **stands for the object of the action,** is called the **object of the verb,** and is in the objective case. In Latin, Greek, German or Anglo-Saxon it would be in the accusative case. In the sentence, 'John was riding in a coach,' the noun *coach*, which comes after the preposition *in*, is in the objective case.

80. The objective case is also used, like the Latin dative, to denote the *indirect object* of a verb, that is to say, it stands for some person or thing indirectly affected by the action, but not the direct object of it; as, 'I gave *the man* a shilling,' 'Tell *me* a tale.' In old English the dative differed in form from the accusative.

The objective case in English therefore does duty both for the Accusative and for the Dative of other languages.* The direct object is the answer to the question formed by putting '*whom* or *what*' before the verb and its subject. Thus (in the example given above) 'Whom or what did the stone strike?' *Ans.* 'The boy.' The indirect object is the answer to the question formed by putting 'To or for whom or to or for what' before the verb, subject and direct object. 'Thus in 'I gave him a book,' the indirect object '*him*' answers the question 'To whom did I give a book?'

81. In nouns the objective case is the same in form as the nominative. They can only be distinguished by their use. In an ordinary declarative sentence the **nominative case precedes the verb** and the **objective case comes after the verb.**

82. The following are examples of the declension of nouns :—

	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nominative Case ...	Man	Men.	Father	Fathers.
Possessive Case	Man's	Men's.	Father's	Fathers'.
Objective Case.....	Man	Men.	Father	Fathers.

* The endeavour to distinguish a *dative* and an *accusative* case in modern English is at variance with the genius and history of the language. We see from the pronouns that the form which maintained its ground was the dative, which first ousted the instrumental and usurped its functions, and then did the same with the accusative. It is unphilosophical to re-introduce grammatical distinctions which a language has ceased to recognize. One might as well attempt to restore the Locative Case to Latin, or the Ablative to Greek. As there is but one *form* (*him*, *her*, *them*, &c) to denote both the direct and the indirect object, not only is nothing gained, but an important piece of linguistic history is obscured by having two names for it. It is much better to use the common name *objective*. It is true that there are two *uses* of the objective case, but that is another matter. A *case* is not the same thing as the *relation* that it expresses, any more than a *noun* is the same as the *thing* which it names. Moreover, the absorption of the accusative by the dative is intimately connected with the peculiar English idiom, that the word which stands for *either* kind of *object* with an *active* verb, may usually be made the *subject* of a *Passive* verb. "I was struck" and "I was told the story" are equally good English. Nothing of this sort is possible in German or Latin.

To say that English has only *one case*—the Possessive—is palpably wrong. It has only one *inflected case* (at least in nouns); but *father* and *father's* make *two forms* of the noun. The fact that pronouns still distinguish the Objective from the Nominative, so as to have *three* distinct forms, compels us to recognize *three* cases in English even in nouns.

ANCIENT ENGLISH DECLENSIONS.

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

83. STRONG DECLENSIONS.

A. Masculine Nouns.

	Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nom.	hund (*dog*)	-as	ende (*end*)	endas	dæg (*day*)	dagas
Gen.	hund-es	-a	endes	enda	dæges	daga
Dat. *Abl.*	hund-e	-um	ende	endum	dæge	dagum
Acc.	hund	-as	ende	endas	dæg	dagas

	Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nom.	mann (*man*)	menn	bróðor (*brother*)	bróðru	sunu (*son*)	suna
Gen.	mannes	manna	bróðor	bróðra	suna	suna
Dat.	menn	mannum	bréðer	bróðrum	suna	sunum
Acc.	mann	menn	bróðor	bróðru	sunu	suna

B. Feminine Nouns.

	Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nom.	gifu (*gift*)	gifa (-e)	dǽd (*deed*)	dǽda (-e)	bóc (*book*)	béc
Gen.	gife	gifena (-a)	dǽde	dǽda	béc	bóca
Dat.	gife	gifum	dǽde	dǽdum	béc	bócum
Acc.	gife	gifa (-e)	dǽde	dǽda (-e)	bóc	béc

C. Neuter Nouns.

	Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nom.	word (*word*)	word	bæc (*back*)	bacu	cild (*child*)	cildru
Gen.	wordes	worda	bæces	baca	cildes	cildra
Dat.	worde	wordum	bæce	bacum	cilde	cildrum
Acc.	word	word	bæc	bacu	cild	cildru

WEAK DECLENSIONS.

	Masculine.		*Feminine.*		*Neuter.*	
	Sing.	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
Nom.	nama (*name*)	naman	tunge (*tongue*)	tungan	eáge (*eye*)	eágan
Gen.	naman	namena	tungan	tungena	eágan	eágena
Dat.	naman	namum	tungan	tungum	eágan	eágum
Acc.	naman	naman	tungan	tungan	eáge	eágan

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

84. By this time most of the inflexions had disappeared. Except a few traces of a dative singular in **-e**, inflexions in nouns had been reduced to the formation of the **plural number** and the **genitive case.**

1. The common plural inflexion was **-es*** (Chaucer) or **-is** (Wycliffe), shortened sometimes to **-s**, for which **z** is now and then found in words of Romance origin, as *instrumentz* (Chaucer, *Squieres Tale*, 270 ed. Skeat), *paramentz* (*Kn. T.* 1643), *olifauntz* (Maundeville).

* Written *-is* and *-us* in some MSS. The suffix *-es* was sounded as a syllable after monosyllables (see *Prol.* 1–14). Words of more than one syllable usually have *-s*. If *-es* is written, it is sounded as *-s*.

2. Plurals in **-en** or **-n** were rather more common than now, as *kneen, hosen, ashen, eyen, sustren, doughteren, lambren,** &c.

3. Some old neuter words continued without plural suffix (see § 83), as *hors, hous, thing.*

4. The genitive or possessive singular was formed by adding **-es** (Chaucer), **-is**, or **-ys** (Wycliffe), or **-s.**

Feminine nouns occasionally have not **-s**, but **-e**, as '*heorte† blood*' (heart's blood). See note on § 76.

In the plural the genitive was usually not distinguished from the nominative, when the latter ended in *-s.* Otherwise *-es* was added, as *mennes.* Traces of the old ending *-ena* are sometimes met with.‡

ADJECTIVE.

85. When we speak of a thing we often require to mention some quality or state of the thing, or its number or quantity, or some relation in which it stands to ourselves or to other things. The words that do this are called Adjectives.§

In the phrase 'a white horse,' the word *white* is an adjective. It denotes a certain *quality* of the horse.

In the phrase 'a book lying on the table,' the word *lying* is an adjective. It denotes a state of the book.

In the phrase 'two men,' the word *two* is an adjective. It points out the *quantity* or *number* of that for which the noun stands.

In the phrase 'this child,' the word *this* is an adjective. It points out that the child *stands in a certain relation* (of nearness) to me.

86. Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word used with a noun **to describe, to measure** or **count,** or **to indicate** that for which the noun stands.

This may also be expressed by saying that an Adjective is a word used with a noun or pronoun **to denote some attribute of quality, quantity, or relation** which marks that for which the noun or pronoun stands.‖

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* Those with *r* before *-en* are usually from A.S. plurals in *-ru.*

† So also *mone* (= *moon's*) occurs once as a possessive (*Sir Thopas* 169). The genitive in A.S. was *monan.* We still say *Monday* (*Monan dæg*) and *Sunday* (*Sunnan dæg*), not *Moonsday* and *Sunsday* (Skeat, *Int. to Chaucer's Pr. Tale*, p. xlix.).

‡ As in *Piers Plowman* (i. 105), "Criste Kingene Kynge" = 'Christ King of Kings.'

§ Latin *adjectivus*, 'capable of being attached to,' from *adjectus*, 'added to.' The older and fuller term for this Part of Speech is 'Noun Adjective' (*nomen adjectivum*). See § 25. The term 'Adjective' differentiates this class of words not from *nouns* (for it is, strictly speaking, one of the two divisions of nouns), but from *Substantives* (which may be either nouns or pronouns).

‖ Beware of the absurdity of saying that "an adjective denotes the quality of a noun." When we speak of a *red rose*, the adjective *red* does not denote a quality of the *name* rose, but of the *thing* for which the name stands. The blunder is very obvious, but is committed in most English Grammars.

An adjective answers the questions (1) 'Of what sort?' or 'In what state?' (2) 'How much?' or 'How many?' (3) 'Which?'

87. When it is attached directly to the noun to which it refers, an adjective is said to be used *attributively;* as 'a *red ball*,' 'a *bird flying* through the air;' '*which* hand will you have?' The adjective and noun together form a compound description of that which we have in our thoughts. When an adjective is connected with a noun by means of some part of the verb *be* (or some other verb of incomplete predication, such as *become*), it is said to be used *predicatively*, as, 'the ball is *red*,' 'the bird was *flying*.' All true adjectives can be used in both ways.

As things are *distinguished* by quality, quantity, and relation, an adjective joined to a noun usually *distinguishes* what the noun stands for from other things that may be named by the same noun.

88. The class-name 'horse' stands for that aggregate of resemblances by virtue of which one horse is like another. The compound name *white horse* means all that *horse* means, and *white* besides. It *adds* something to the meaning of *horse*. But the more marks we group together to distinguish a class, the smaller must the class be. The class denoted by *white horse* is smaller than the class denoted by *horse*. Hence we may also have the following

Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word which **may limit the application of a noun** to that which has the quality, the quantity, or the relation, which the adjective denotes.*

To be an adjective, a word must do this by virtue of its *own proper meaning*. Certain forms and uses of other parts of speech may also have a definitive or limiting force. Thus in 'John's book' the possessive case '*John's*' has this force, but '*John's*' is still a *noun* in the possessive case, and not an *adjective*, just like '*Caesaris*' in the Latin 'Caesaris uxor' (Caesar's wife). But the possessive case is so like an adjective, that in some pronouns it was formerly declined like an adjective.

In combinations like *teaspoon*, *apple-tree*, *cannon ball*, the first word is not an adjective. It does not *express* an attributive idea, it merely *suggests* one. It has a *limiting* but not an *attributive* force. The two nouns form a *compound name*. Hence those most commonly used have come to be written as one word. The word *tea*, *apple*, or *cannon*, cannot be used as a *predicate*, as a true adjective can.

In many cases the first (or *limiting*) member of the compound may be looked upon as an uninflected possessive case, in which *position* supplies the place of *inflexion*. Compare *seaman* and *landsman*, *pikeman* and *swordsman*, *buckhorn* and *hartshorn*.

* This, however, is not invariably the function of adjectives. 'Socrates' names a *single person*. 'Wise Socrates' names and describes this same person, but does not limit the application of the name.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

89. Adjectives may be arranged in the following classes:—

1. **Qualitative** * **Adjectives,** or **Adjectives of Quality.**
2. **Quantitative** † **Adjectives,** or **Adjectives of Quantity.**
3. **Demonstrative Adjectives,** or **Adjectives of Relation** (Latin *demonstro*, 'I point out').

Respecting the division of Adjectives into **Notional** and **Relational** see § 26.

90. I. **Qualitative Adjectives** (or **Adjectives of Quality**) denote some **quality** or **attribute,** as *virtuous, white, large,*‡ *small, great, little* (in the sense of 'small'), *such.* They may also be called **Descriptive Adjectives.** The verbal adjectives called Participles belong to this class.

91. II. **Quantitative Adjectives** (or **Adjectives of Quantity**) denote **how much** or **how many** of that for which the noun stands we have in our thoughts. This class includes—

a. The Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, **one, two, three,** &c. (The words *hundred, thousand, million,* like *pair* and *dozen,* are nouns.§ They may be used in the plural, as *hundreds.*)

b. The words **all, any,**‖ **some, half, many, few, much, more, most, little, less, least, both, several, none,** or **no** (= *not any*), **enough.**

92. *All, any, some, enough, more, most, none* or *no,* relate to *quantity* when used with a noun in the singular, and to *number* when used with a noun in the plural.

Examples. 'All men are mortal.' 'He sleeps all night.' 'I have some pens.' 'Give me some wine.' 'Wait half an hour.' 'Few persons will believe that.' 'I have much pleasure in doing this.' 'He has more sense than his neighbour.' 'Most persons admire valour.' 'He had both eyes put out.' 'Make no noise.' 'Give none offence.' This use of *none* is now obsolete.

93. Most of these words may be used as substantives, as '*All* is lost'; '*Much* has been said, but *more* remains to be told'; 'He lost *less* than I did'; '*Enough* has been said.'

94. The words *all, half, little, less, least, much, more, most, enough, none, no,* are also used as adverbs; as "*all* round the world;" "*half* afraid;" "I am

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* From the Latin *qualis* 'of what sort.'

† From the Latin *quantum* 'how much.'

‡ *Large, small, great,* describe the magnitude of the thing referred to, but do not tell us *how much* of it we are speaking about.

§ In A.S. they were followed by the genitive case, as though we said 'A hundred of sheep,' &c. In such phrases as 'A hundred sheep,' 'A dozen books,' the noun *sheep* or *books* is in apposition to the noun *hundred* or *dozen.*

‖ *Any* and *some* are discussed under the head of 'Pronouns.'

but *litt*. encouraged by that ;" "he is *less* careful than his brother ;" "he is the *least* ambitious man that I know ;" "he is *much more* studious than he used to be ;" "he is *most* anxious to succeed ;" "he is tall *enough* ;" "I am *no* better ;" "he is *none* the worse."

95. *Half* is connected with the old English noun *half* (A.S. *healf*), meaning 'side *or* part.'* *Half* (*healf*) was also a declinable adjective in Anglo-Saxon. In 'The *half* of my goods' it is a substantive. In 'A *half* holiday,' '*half* way,' it is an adjective.

The adjective *whole* is a *descriptive* adjective. It properly means 'unbroken,' and thence 'undiminished.' 'A *whole* holiday' means 'an unbroken holiday'; 'The *whole* distance' is 'the *undivided* or *undiminished* distance.'

Many is a substantive † in 'A great *many* men' (the noun that follows it being in apposition to it). It is an adjective in '*Many* years have passed.' It may be used with a noun in the singular when the indefinite article ‡ intervenes, as '*Many* a man.'

Few (A.S. sing.§ *feá*, plural *feáwe*) is probably always an adjective.‖ Such a phrase as 'A few books' may be treated as on a par with "A twenty bokes" (Chaucer, *Prol.*), where a numerically defined *collection* is taken as a *whole*.

Few (without the article) denies that there are many; *a few* denies that there are none. There is a similar distinction between *little* and *a little*.

More formerly meant *greater*, as in 'The more part' (*Acts* xix. 32). But even in A.S. *mára* meant both 'greater' and 'additional.'¶ It has this latter sense in such phrases as 'There is some *more* wine in the bottle.' In 'I have *more* money than you' it measures the *whole quantity* of money.

Little, *less*, and *least*, when they denote *size*, are *qualitative* or *descriptive* adjectives, as 'a *little* boy,' 'The *less* evil of the two,' 'Not in the *least* degree.' They are *quantitative* adjectives** in such phrases as 'I have but *little* money left,' '*Less* rain fell to-day,' 'He showed the *least* courage of all.'

Both, from the stem *bá* (A.S. *masc.* begen, *fem.* bá, *neut.* ba *or* bu), and a

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* In Maundeville we find 'On this half the see' = 'on this side the sea'; in the Ormulum 'O Godes halfe' = 'on the part of,' or 'by order of God' (Stratmann *s. v.* Koch ii. 442). In modern English 'On behalf of' is the result of a confusion. There were two equivalent phrases in A.S. 'on healfe' = *on side*, and 'be healfe' = *by side* or *beside* (*Grein* iv. p. 53). These were jumbled together into '*on behalf*,' which is as if we said 'on by side' (Skeat, *Et. Dict. s. v.*).

† In A.S. there was both a noun *menigo* = 'multitude,' and an adjective *manig* = 'many.' The use of the descriptive adjective *great* before *many* shows that the latter is a genuine substantive.

‡ The indefinite article was not necessary in old English. In the Ormulum (693) we find *manig mann*. Compare the German *mancher* (which is the same word), and the Latin '*Plurimus* in Junonis honorem aptum dicet equis Argos' (*Horace*). The old English word *fele* (A.S. *fela*, German *viel*) was still used by Wycliffe and Chaucer, as "daies fele" = 'many days' (*Clerkes T.* 917).

§ *Feá* was an adjective equivalent to the Latin *paucus* = 'rarely occurring,' 'met with but seldom.' Thus "feá ænig wæs monna cynnes," 'there was but here and there one of the race of men.' The singular was indeclinable, and followed by the genitive. In the Scotch phrase 'A few porridge,' *few* seems to have the sense 'a small quantity.' The plural feáwe was declined in A.S.

‖ Hence we say 'A very few,' the adverb qualifying the *adjective*.

¶ Thus "nán mærra man" = 'not one more man' (*Menolog.* 161. See *Grein* iv. p. 212).

** In A.S. a small quantity or number of anything was expressed by the substantive *lyt* with the genitive ('*A lite*' is found in Chaucer). From *lyt* was formed the adjective *lytel* (*little*). The adjective *little* is used substantively in 'A little wine,' *wine* being in apposition to *little*. The word is from a root *lut* meaning 'to deceive' (*Skeat, s. v.*) Respecting *less* and *least* see under 'Comparison of Adjectives.'

suffix *-th* of uncertain origin,* indicates that two objects are regarded in conjunction. *Each* implies that two or more are regarded *separately*.

Enough is a substantive in '*Enough* has been said'; it is an adjective (as is indicated by its position) in 'I have money *enough*.'† In early English 'enough' was used of *quantity*, 'enow' of number.

None (A.S. *nán* = *ne-án*) was originally singular in sense (*not one*), and was not used with reference to *quantity*. By Chaucer's time it was used of more than one ("*Noon* holy men," *Prol.* 178). In modern English it is used substantively with reference both to number and to quantity, as 'Give me some pens (or some money), I have *none*.'

None = *no one* is becoming obsolete.‡ As an adjective *none* is now used in the shortened form no,§ as "He has *no* friends and *no* money."

96. Such expressions as 'All of us,' 'The whole of the day,' 'Both of you,' are of course illogical. It has been suggested‖ that they have arisen from a confusion between 'All we' and 'Some of us,' &c.

97. III. **Demonstrative Adjectives, or Adjectives of Relation,** *point out* that which we are speaking of by indicating some *relation* which it bears to ourselves, or to some other person or thing. This class includes :—

1. The Definite Article **the** and the Indefinite Article **an** or **a**.
2. The Adjective Pronouns. (See Table of Pronouns § 130.)
3. The Ordinal Numerals, **first, second, third**, &c.

98. Adjectives are often used without having any noun expressed to which they may be attached.

1. A previously expressed noun is *understood*, i.e. not expressed, but intended to be kept in mind, as "He picked out the black balls and left the white."

2. The adjective refers to some substantive notion which is too vague to be expressed. In a singular sense this use of descriptive adjectives is now¶ restricted to universal concrete ideas, as 'The sublime,' 'The beautiful'; ** and to a few phrases, as 'In common'; 'At random'; 'In future'; 'For better or worse,' &c. Adjectives thus used may be termed *Adjectival Substantives*, or *Adjectives used as Substantives*. Quantitative and demonstrative adjectives are often used thus, as '*That* was agreed to'; '*Much* †† has been accomplished.'

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* This *-th* appears in the Gothic *baioths* (compare the German *beide*). It is often confused with the *twa* ('two') with which *bá* is sometimes compounded in A.S. (*bátwá*, neut *butu* = 'both two.' Compare *both twain* in Shakspeare, *Love's L. L.* V. 2). The root *ba* or *bai* is the same as the *bo* in the Latin *ambo* (Fick, *Vergl. Wört*, i 18).

† In such cases it was declined in A.S., as "hláf genóhne habbaþ" = 'have bread enough' (*Luke* xv. 17). The plural form *ynowe* occurs in Chaucer (see *Sq. T.* 470). The *e*, *i* or *y* at the beginning represents the *ge* of *genóh* (Germ. *genug*).

‡ Dryden still wrote "None but the brave deserves the fair."

§ So in early English *one* became *o* or *oo*, and *mine*, &c., became *my*, &c.

‖ *E.g.* by Dr. Abbott.

¶ In older English we find such phrases as "every rewful" = every sorrowful person (*Chaucer*). "The poor is hated" (*Prov.* xiv 20); "Thy dearest far" (*Young*).

** Do not call these *abstract*. The abstract names are 'sublimity,' 'beauty.' 'The sublime' is that in which the quality of *sublimity* is found. It is therefore a *concrete* idea.

†† But *much*, when so used, must still be qualified by an *adverb*, not by an *adjective*, as *Very* much,' '*So* much.' "*This* much" is a blunder. It must be '*Thus* much.'

3. Some adjectives are used completely as substantives, and form plurals and possessives. The adjectives which admit of this are—

1. National names, such as *German, Italian, Roman.* We say, "A Roman's rights"; "The Germans crossed the Rhine." Names which end in a sibilant (*Dutch, Chinese,* &c.) have no inflexion.
2. Names denoting the members of a sect or party; as Christian, Lutheran, Stoic, Jacobite, &c.
3. Various Latin comparatives, as *senior, junior, inferior,* &c., with the Anglo-Saxon *elder* and *better.*
4. Various adjectives denoting persons, and of French or Latin origin, as *native, mortal, noble, saint, criminal, ancient, modern,* &c., together with a very few of Anglo-Saxon origin, as *black, white,* and grammatical terms, as *nominatives,* &c.
5. Adjectives used as substantives *in the plural only,* as *vitals, intestines, eatables, moveables, valuables, greens, the blues, sweets,* &c.
6. The adjective *other.* Some writers also use *either's* and *neither's* in the possessive singular.
7. Numerals used pronominally, as 'For *ten's* sake'; 'They arrived by *twos* and *threes.*'

NUMERALS.

99. It has been pointed out that the Cardinal Numerals are Adjectives of Quantity, and that the Ordinal Numerals are Demonstrative Adjectives, or Adjectives of Relation.

100. The Anglo-Saxon cardinal numerals * are (1) án; (2) twegen, twá; (3) þri, þreo; (4) feówer; (5) fif; (6) six; (7) seofon; (8) eahta; (9) nigon; (10) tyn *or* tin; (11) endlufon, endleof *or* endlif; (12) twelf; (13) þreotyne; (14) feówertyne, &c.; (20) twentig; (30) þrítig, &c.; (70) hundseofontig; (80) hundeahtatig; (90) hundnigontig; (100) hundteontig *or* hund; (110) hundendlufontig; (120) hundtwelftig.

101. The syllable **-tig** (**-ty**) is really a substantive, meaning 'a lot of ten' (Gothic *tigus,* having the same root as *dec-em*). Hence the numerals *twentig,* &c. in Anglo-Saxon were sometimes substantives followed by the genitive plural. The curious '*eleventy*' and '*twelvety*' should be noticed.

Endlufon or **endlif** means **one**+**ten**; **en** (**d**) is a variety of the word **one**, and **lif** is really identical with the root of **dec**-em and **δεκ**-α.† Similarly **twelf** is a compound of **twa** and **lif** (two+ten).

* On comparing the English numerals with those of Latin and Greek by the aid of Grimm's law (bearing in mind that a guttural is very apt to be softened into *f* or *v*, as we see in *laugh* compared with A.S. *hlihan* and German *lachen*, or to disappear from between vowels), it will be seen that they are radically the same. The German *fünf* and Gothic *fimf* show that an *n* has disappeared from *five* (*fif*). In *ten* there has been the loss of the guttural which we have in *decem* (δέκα), and the Gothic *taihun*. The syllable *hund* is a remnant of the Gothic ordinal *taihund* = *tenth* (as *centum* is of *decentum*, a neuter ordinal of *decem*). *Hundred* is a compound of *hund* and *red* or *ræd* ('reckoning'), and means 'tenth count.' In Gothic the complete form for 'a hundred' was *taihun-taihund*, i.e. 'tenth ten.' Reckoning by tens being presupposed, *hund* (i.e. *tenth*) was used by itself in A.S. for *a hundred* (Skeat, *Moeso-Gothic Gloss.* and *Etym. Dict.*). 'Dozen' is from *duodecim*. 'Score' means 'a cut.' Reckoning by scores was characteristic of Keltic peoples.

† *D* and *l* are frequently interchanged, as in *ol-eo* and *od-or*, ὄδμρυ and *lacrima*.

The forms for *one*, *two*, and *three* were always declined, as were those for *four*, *five*, *six*, *seven*, *nine*, *ten*, *eleven*, and *twelve* when used without a substantive following. The compounds of *-tig* were sometimes substantives, sometimes adjectives. *Twegen* = *twain*.

First is a superlative of *fore*. The A.S. *forma* is also a superlative of *fore*, as *primus* in Latin is of *pro*. **Second** is the Latin *secundus* (following). The old word for second was 'other.' We still say '*every other* day,' *i.e.*, '*every second* day.' **Third** was in A.S. þridda, where *da* replaced ðа (=modern *-th*) after the *d*. The *r* keeps its place before the *i* in the Yorkshire term *riding* (= *thriding*, 'a third part'). The A.S. form *teoða* 'tenth,' without *n*, appears in *tithe*. The forms which retain the *n* (*seventh*, *ninth*, *tenth*, &c.) were adopted from the Northern dialect.

INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES.

102. Adjectives, in modern English, are not declinable words, with the exception of the words *this* and *that*, plurals *these* and *those*.

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

103. Adjectives preceded by a demonstrative word were declined like masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns of the weak declension.

When not preceded by a definitive word, adjectives were thus declined:

	Singular.			*Plural.*	
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. and F.*	*Neut.*
Nom.	til (good)	til, -u	til	tile	tilu, -e
Gen.	tiles	tilre	tiles	tilra*	tilra
Dat.	tilum	tilre	tilum	tilum	tilum
Acc.	tilne	tile	til	tile	tilu, -e
Abl.	tile	tilre	tile		

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

104. By the time of Chaucer the various suffixes had been reduced to an inflexional *e* in the plural, especially in adjectives of one syllable, and of adjectives used substantively, at the end of adjectives preceded by demonstratives and possessives, and in the vocative case, as 'O stronge God' (*Kn. T.* 1515).

Norman-French adjectives sometimes have *s* in the plural, when placed after their nouns, as *cosins germains*, *places delitables* (*Koch* i. p. 447).

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

105. Adjectives have three forms called Degrees of Comparison. These are—**1. The Positive Degree. 2. The Comparative Degree. 3. The Superlative Degree.**

* Shakspeare has preserved a solitary specimen of the old genitive plural suffix *er* (A.S. *-ra*) in the word *alderliefest* (for *allerliefest*, *d* being an offgrowth of *l* before *r*), meaning 'dearest of all' (*H. King H. VI.*, i. 1). Compare the German *allerliebst*. In Chaucer we find *alderlevest*, *alderfirst*, as well as *youre aller* = 'of you all.' In *olden*, *en* is perhaps a relic of the ancient inflexion.

106. The **Positive Degree** of an adjective is the adjective in its simple form, used to point out some quality or attribute of that which we speak about, as 'A *black* cat,' 'A *fine* day.'

107. The **Comparative Degree** of an adjective is that form of it by means of which we show that one thing,* or set of things, possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing, or set of things.

108. The Comparative Degree (Latin *comparativus*, from *compare*, 'I put together') is formed from the Positive by adding to it the syllable **-er** † before which mute **-e** is dropped, and *y* is dealt with in the same way as before the plural suffix *-es* (§ 49), as 'My knife is *sharper* than yours;' 'John's book is pretty, but mine is *prettier*;' 'Your clothes are *finer* than mine.' One thing may be compared either with *one* other, or with *a group of several*; and a group of things may be compared either with another group or with a single thing. Also a thing may be compared with *itself under other circumstances*, as 'John is stouter than he was last year.'

109. It must not be imagined that the comparative degree always expresses the existence of more of a certain quality in an object than the positive degree does. If we say, "William is a clever boy," and "John is cleverer than Thomas," we are not to infer that *cleverer* in the second case implies more cleverness in John than *clever* implies in the case of William. The fact may be that William is cleverer than John.

110. Some adjectives in the comparative degree are now used merely to mark relations in space or time, as *former*, *latter*, *elder*, *upper*, *inner*, &c.

111. The **Superlative** ‡ **Degree** of an adjective is that form of it which shows that a certain thing, or group of things, possesses the attribute denoted by the adjective *in a greater degree than any other among several, of which it is one.* It is formed by adding **st** or **est** § to the adjective in the positive degree; as, *greatest*, *largest*. Thus, of several boys in a group, we may say, 'John is *the tallest*.'

112. If we say "John is *taller* than all the other boys in the class," we express the same relation as to height between John and the rest as if

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* The word *thing* means generally whatever we can *think* about, *i.e.*, make a distinct object of thought, including *persons*, as well as what we commonly denominate things.

† In Anglo-Saxon the suffix was *-er* or *-or*, in declension dropping the vowel, and inflected according to the weak declension. The letter *r* is the softened form of a sibilant. In Gothic the suffix is *-iza*. With this we may compare the Latin comparative suffix *-ios* (Key *Lat. Gr.* § 241), the *s* of which is softened to *r* in declension. It is an ancient Aryan suffix. (Sansc, *tyas*.) Another Aryan comparative suffix, *tar* or *ter*, which we get in the Greek *-τερος*, appears also in the Latin *-ter* and the English *-ther*, to indicate that one thing is viewed in its relation to some other, as *alter* 'one of two'; *uter* 'which of two'; *neuter*; *other*, *either*, *neither*, *whether*.

‡ Superlative (Lat. *superlativus*, from *superlatus*) means 'lifting up above.' The superlative degree *lifts* the thing that it is applied to *above* all the rest of the group.

§ In Anglo-Saxon the termination was *-est* or *-ost*. In early English writers we still find comparatives in *-or* and superlatives in *-ost*, and sometimes in *-ust* and *-yst*.

we say, "John is *the tallest* boy in the class." But in the former case, John is considered *apart from* the other boys of the class, so that the *two* objects which we have in mind are *John* and *the other boys in the class*. When the superlative degree is used, John is considered as *one of the group* of boys compared with each other.

When two things forming one group are compared, it is usual and proper to employ the comparative degree, as "This line is *the longer* of the two."

113. Many adjectives, from the nature of the ideas which they express, cannot have comparative and superlative degrees; as, *right, left, wrong, square, triangular*, together with some of the quantitative adjectives, and all the demonstrative adjectives. Sometimes, however, adjectives are used in a sense which falls short of their strict meaning, and then they admit of degrees of comparison which would not otherwise be tolerable. For example, *extreme, perfect, chief*. As when we say, "This specimen is *more perfect* than that"; "He died in the *extremest* misery"; "The *chiefest* among ten thousand."

114. The superlative degree is sometimes used in an *absolute* sense, when the thing spoken of is not compared with the rest of a class, but is regarded as possessing a certain quality in a very high degree, as 'Hail, *divinest* Melancholy' (*Milton*). *Most* is now usually prefixed to the positive to express this sense. Spenser even uses the comparative absolutely, as 'Help thy *weaker* (= *too weak*) novice' (F.Q. *Prol.*).

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

115. In the case of some adjectives, comparison is marked by what are commonly termed *irregular* forms, which in some cases are derived from totally different roots.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better*	best
Bad	worse†	worst
Little ‡	less	least
Much§	more	most

* In Gothic we find Pos. *bats*, Comp. *batiza*, Sup. *batista*, all from the same root *bat* = 'good,' from which *better* and *best* are formed with vowel-change, like *elder* from *old*, and the A.S. *lengra, lengest* ('longer, longest'). The root in a positive sense is found in the phrase '*to boot*,' which answers precisely to the colloquial expression 'Having something *to the good*.' In Anglo-Saxon and early English the comparative form *bet* is found, the suffix *-er* being thrown off as it was in *leng* (longer), *eþ* (more easily), *mo* (more), *ær* (sooner). Thus "Bet is to dyen than have indigence" (*Chaucer*); "*Do-wel, Do-bet* and *Do-best*" (Langland).

† *Worse* (from A.S. *weor* = 'bad') has the old *s* of the comparative suffix (§ 108, *note*). The softened suffix *r* appears in the Scotch *waur* and the old English forms *werre* (Orm. 4898), *warre* or *war* ("The world is much *war* than it wont." (*Spenser*). 'Worse' and 'worst' also do duty as comp. and sup. to 'evil' and 'ill.' Chaucer (*Sq. T.* 224) has *badder*.

‡ *Little* (A.S. *lytel*) is formed from the subst. *lyt* (§ 95). *Less* and *least* come from a root *las* 'feeble.' From *las* would be formed either *læssa* or *læsra* as a comparative, and *læsest* as a superlative. *Lesser* (= smaller) may be the modern form of *læsra*, and so older than *less* which would be formed from it as *bet* from *better*. Most writers, however, treat *lesser* as a double comparative. *Less* sometimes means 'smaller,' as in "How to name the bigger light, and how the less" (Shaksp. *Temp.*). *Least* is formed directly from the root *las*.

§ *Much* is the modern form of the A.S. *micel* 'great,' which has the same root as μέγας and *magnus*. *More* (A.S. *māra* = *magra*) and *most* (A.S. *māst* = *magest*) have lost the *g*. *Moe* (A.S. *mā*), without the comparative suffix, is found in old English when referring to number. *More* and *most* meant *greater* and *greatest* (we still speak of 'the most part,' and used to say 'the more part'). The words have nothing to do etymologically with *many*.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Many	[more]	[most]
Late	later* *or* latter	latest *or* last
[Nigh † *adv.*]	nigher	nighest *or* next
[Fore *adv.*]	former	first ‡ *or* foremost
Old	older *or* elder §	oldest *or* eldest
[Forth *adv.*]	further ‖	furthest
Far	farther ¶	farthest ¶

116. In Anglo-Saxon there were two superlative suffixes, *-ost* or *-est* and *-ema* (compare the Greek *ιστος* in *μέγιστος*, and the Latin *-imus* in *simill-imus, intimus*, &c.). There are a few superlatives in English ending in *-most : hind-most, inmost, foremost, utmost*, or *uttermost*.** Most of these are derived from adverbs. They are not compounds of the adverb *most*, but double superlatives,†† formed by the use of both terminations *-ema* and *-ost*.

117. Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most adjectives of two syllables, do not allow of the formation of comparative and superlative degrees by means of suffixes. But the same ideas are denoted by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the adjective in the positive degree. Thus we say, *Virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; Learned, more learned, most learned.* The dissyllabic adjectives which do admit of suffixes of comparison are those ending in *-y* (*merry, merrier, merriest; holy, holier, holiest*); in -er (as *tender, tenderer, tenderest*); those in *-ble* (as *able, abler, ablest*); those accented on the last syllable, as *polite, politer, politest; severe,*

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* *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* generally to position in a series. *Last* is a contraction of *latest*.

† There is no proper adjective form for the positive. The A.S. forms were *neah, nearra, neahst*. The comparative *nearra* passed into the forms *nerre* and *ner* ("*Ner* and *ner*" — *nearer* and *nearer* in Chaucer, *Pr. T.* 1710), and *ner* or *near* came to be used as a positive, and then *nearer* and *nearest* were formed from it. The three degrees ought to be *nigh, near, next*. Shakspeare uses *near* as a comparative, "The *near* in blood, the nearer bloody" (*Macb.* ii. 3).

‡ *First* (A.S. *fyrst*) is the superlative (with vowel-change) of *fore*. Another superlative form in A.S. was *forma*. Chaucer speaks of "Adam our *forme* (= *first*) fader." *Tale of Mel.* From this was made the anomalous comparative *former* and the double superlative *foremost*.

§ *Elder* and *eldest* answer to the A.S. *yldra* and *yldest*, formed with vowel-change as well as suffix from *eald* = 'old.' (Compare *lengra* and *lengest* from *lang; gyngra* and *gyngest*, 'younger' and 'youngest' from *geong*.) '*Elder*' is now used to denote the *precedence* which is the consequence of being *older*. The old word *eld* is an abstract noun = A.S. *yldu*.

‖ Most writers set down *further* and *furthest* as made from *forth*. M. Skeat (*Etym. Dict.*), on comparing the Dutch and German forms, is inclined to regard *further* as made from *fore* by the comparative suffix *-ther* (§ 108, *note*). It would then be the exact etymological equivalent of πρότερος (see Grimm's law). In that case *furthest* would be made on a false analogy, as if from *forth*.

¶ These are false forms, made through confusion to resemble *further* and *furthest*. The forms in A.S. are *fyrre* and *feorrest*, in Chaucer *ferre* and *ferrest* (*Prol.* 48, 494). *Far* as a comparative is found in Shakspeare,—"Far than Deucalion off" (*Wint. T.* iv. 3).

** The *r* in *uttermost, innermost*, &c., is merely phonetic, not formative. In Anglo-Saxon we find *hindemest, æftemest, innemest*, &c.

†† It is likely enough, however, that some of these words (as *hithermost, middlemost, undermost, topmost*) were really formed under the false conception that *-most* was the superlative adverb. We even find the comparative *more* in the double comparative *further-more*. *Topmost* and *endmost* are formed by a false analogy from nouns.

severer, severest; and some others, as *pleasanter,** *pleasantest; narrower, narrowest,* &c. The older writers often use *more* and *most* with monosyllabic adjectives, as *more strong, more sad.*

118. Combinations like *more learned, most virtuous,* may be called degrees of comparison, though not inflected, just as 'shall go' is called the future tense of the verb 'go.' This analytic mode of comparison is of Norman-French origin. Double comparatives and superlatives are common in the older writers, as 'worser,' 'more braver,' 'the most unkindest cut of all' (*Shaksp.*); 'the most straitest sect,' &c.

119. Some comparatives, as *near, outer, inner,* have come to denote the relation of an object to a certain standard or starting point.

ARTICLE.

120. The **Articles**† are not a separate part of speech; they belong to the **Demonstrative** or **Relational Adjectives** (§ 97).

There are two Articles, the **Indefinite** Article **an** or **a,** and the **Definite** Article **the.**

121. The Indefinite Article **an** is another form of the numeral **one** (A.S. *án*). It indicates that we are speaking either of *some one,* or of *any one* of the things for which the noun is a name, as, 'I saw *an* old man'; 'A (*i.e., any*) child should obey its parents.'

122. The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound or mute *h,* as *an apple, an heir.*

An drops the *n,*‡ and becomes *a* before words beginning with a consonant, the aspirate *h,* or the letter *u* when the sound of *y* is put before the *u* in pronunciation, as *A man, a horse, a yellow ball, a useful book.* But *an* is kept before the aspirate when the accent is not upon the first syllable of the word, as 'an historical event.'

123. In some expressions what is now commonly regarded as the indefinite article *a* was originally a weakened form of the preposition *on* (=in).§

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* Euphony is the guide in this matter. The suffixes *er* and *est* were more freely employed by the earlier writers. Thus, *e.g.*, we find *unhopefullest* in Shakspeare, *honourablest* in Bacon, *virtuousest* in Fuller, &c. In poetical diction comparatives and superlatives in *er* and *est* are allowed which are not usual in ordinary prose, such as *divinest, perfectest, properest.*

† Latin *articulus* (Greek ἄρθρον), 'a joint.' The term was first used by Aristotle to denote the pronouns generally, as being the 'joints' or 'sockets' by which the real *limbs* of language, the Noun and the Verb, were jointed together. The Stoics distinguished the *Definite Articles* (i.e. the Personal Pronouns) from the *Indefinite Articles* (i.e. the other pronouns, including what we call the Definite Article). The grammarians of Alexandria separated the Article from the Pronoun. (See more in *Lersch* and *Peile.*)

‡ In old English the form *a* or *o* is found for *an* (as *ae* in Scotch for *ane*), even when used as a numeral. We still say 'They are both of *a* size,' i.e., of *one* size.

An was sometimes emp'oyed in Anglo-Saxon as the Indefinite Article. Thus, *e.g.*, "Job ascræp þone wyrms of his lice mid ánum crocscearde" ('Job scraped the corruption off his body with a potsherd.' *Aelf. Hom.*). Its regular use in this manner was not established till after the Norman Conquest. From its origin and meaning *an* or *a* occupies a kind of border land between the Quantitative and the Demonstrative Adjectives.

§ It is going too far, however, to assert that the Indefinite Article was never used with a distributive force. In 'A shilling *a* pound,' *a* = *on* or *in* would be without meaning. It is here undoubtedly the *article* or *numeral a,* as it is also in "án gear *án* man," '[they ruled] a year *a* (= *each*) man' (*Alf. Transl. of Oros,* ii. 2, 3).

Thus 'Twice a week' was 'twiwa on wucan' (*Luke* xviii. 12. See *Koch*, ii. p. 85; Morris, *Hist. Outl.*)

124. The Definite Article **the** is used to designate among all the things denoted by a noun that one, or those, that we are speaking of.

125. The definite article *the* is a weakened form of the neuter of the old demonstrative *se, seó, thæt*, which in Anglo-Saxon, besides its ordinary force, had the weaker force of the article.*

126. (**A**) *The* is used to mark out in a class the particular thing or things that we are speaking of. It does this (1) by directing attention to some previous mention of the thing, as "He was armed with a rapier and a dagger; *the* rapier he held in his right hand, and *the* dagger in his left"; (2) by pointing to a proper (or individual) name by which a common or general name is particularized, as "*The* Emperor Augustus"; (3) by directing attention to some attributive adjunct by which the individual is distinguished. Thus when we say '*the* black horse,' *the* points attention to the adjective *black*. When we say 'the Queen of England,' *the* points to the adjunct 'of England;' (4) *The* also indicates that particular thing with which we have some obvious connection or concern, or which has some obvious claim to precedence in our thoughts, as when we say *the sun, the moon, the Queen, the City, the street, the Church*, &c. The definite article does for objects in the sphere of conception what the demonstrative *that* does for visible objects within our view.

(**B**) The word *the* is used to show that one individual is taken as the representative of its class, as when we talk of *the lion, the eagle*, or to show that we are speaking of the whole of the class to which the name belongs, as when we speak of *the stars, the English, the good, the Alps*, or before an abstract noun used in the concrete sense, to show that the noun is taken in its whole significance, as 'the nobility,' 'the aristocracy.'

There is a corresponding use of *the* when it occurs before an adjective, when the two together form a *universal concrete name*, as 'the sublime,' 'the ridiculous.'

Respecting the word *the* (the old instrumental case of *that*) in such phrases as "*the* sooner *the* better" (='*by how much* the sooner, *by so much* the better'), see under the head of Pronominal Adverbs.

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* The neuter *that* was early employed in the Northern dialect as a demonstrative for all genders, and was ere long supplanted (when used as an article) by the uninflected form *the*. Later this form was adopted in the Southern dialect, which retained the inflected demonstrative or article longer than the Northern. In 'Cursor Mundi' and Hampole we find *the, this*, and *that* used just as in modern English, while the contemporary Southern dialect had twelve inflected forms of *this*, and fifteen of *the* or *that*. (Murray, *Dial. of S. Counties of Scotland*, p. 181)

In early writers of the Northern dialect are found the curious forms *the tone* and *the tother*. These were no doubt nothing more than *that one* and *that other* divided wrongly. Similarly *another* was divided *a-nother*, and *nother* became an independent word (Murray, *l. c.* p. 176).

PRONOUN.

127. A Pronoun * (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') **is a word used instead of a noun**, as when the speaker, instead of naming himself, or the person to or of whom he is speaking, says, '**I** am rich'; '**You** said so'; '**He** that is down need fear no fall.' Demonstrative Pronouns enable us to avoid the repetition of a noun that has already been used, as '**John** has come home, **he** is very tired,' instead of 'John is very tired.'

128. The real function of Pronouns would, however, be better expressed by the following

Definition.—Pronouns are words which **designate** persons or things by their **relation to other persons or things.** (See § 26.)

Thus **I, Thou, We,** designate certain persons by means of their mutual relation, as *speaking*, or *spoken to*. *This* and *that* designate something by its relation of nearness to, or distance from *me*. *Either* designates a thing by its *alternative* relation to some other thing.

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

129. Pronouns are divided into two classes, **Substantive Pronouns** and **Adjective Pronouns.**

130. TABLE OF THE PRONOUNS.

	Substantive.	*Adjective.*
I. Personal	I, thou, we, you or ye	
II. Demonstrative	he, she, it, they	this, that; these, those
III. Relative	that	
IV. Interrogative and Relative	who, what	which, what, whether
V. Indefinite	one, aught, naught	any, other, some
VI. Distributive	... ...	each, every, either, neither
VII. Possessive	... ...	mine *and* my, thine *and* thy, his, her *and* hers, its, our *and* ours, your *and* yours, their *and* theirs

* The term *Pronoun* is based upon the wider signification of the term *Noun* as including both the *Noun Substantive* and the *Noun Adjective* (see § 25). The etymological definition of it is, however, imperfect and misleading. The words *I, thou, we, you*, do a great deal more than *replace nouns* (see the definitions of the Personal Pronouns). Avoidance of repetition is only one of the purposes served even by demonstrative pronouns, and *is never a function of the Personal Pronouns.*

Words like *horse, red*, &c., are limited in their application; but there is nothing that may not, in its relation to something else, be spoken of by means of a Pronoun. The name of this Part of Speech in Sanskrit signified 'Name for everything.'

	Substantive.	*Adjective.*
VIII. Reflective	self *and* selves in myself, ourselves, &c.	self *and* selves in himself, themselves, &c.

The Nominative Case *I* is always written with a Capital letter.

I.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

131. The Personal Pronoun of the First Person is the pronoun which is used when a person speaks of himself singly, or of himself in conjunction with one or more others, without using any names. It is made up of the following forms:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case.....	I	We
[*Possessive Case*].....	[Mine *or* My]	[Our]
Objective Case.....	Me	Us

132. The Personal Pronoun of the Second Person is the pronoun which is used when we speak of the person or persons spoken to. It is declinable, and has the following forms:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case ...	Thou	Ye *or* You
[*Possessive Case*] ...	[Thine *or* Thy]	[Your]
Objective Case.....	Thee	You *or* Ye

133. *Ye* was once exclusively nominative, and *you* objective (*ye* from A.S. *gé*, *you* from *eów*), but even the best writers sometimes used *ye* as the objective,* and now *you* is indifferently nominative and objective.

134. In Anglo-Saxon only the singular forms of this pronoun were used in addressing a single person. In ordinary usage the singular is now restricted to solemn addresses, as in prayer to the Deity and in poetry. In Shakspeare's time the singular was also used as the pronoun of affection towards children † or friends, of good-natured superiority to servants, and of contempt or anger to strangers.‡ (Abbott, *Sh. Gr.* p. 153.) At a very early period the plural came to be used in speaking to a single person. It was at first employed as a mark of special respect (as when a subject speaks to a king, or a son to his father), as though the person addressed were as good as two or more ordinary people.§ *You* and *your* are now the ordinary pronouns of address, whether we are speaking to one person, or to more than one.

135. The Personal Pronouns have, properly speaking, no Possessive Case, that is to say, no Possessive Case with the force of a *substantive*. In Anglo-Saxon, when the genitives of these pronouns were used in

* As 'His wrath, which one day will destroy *ye* both' (*Milton*). 'The more shame for *ye*, holy men I thought *ye*' (*Shakspeare*). In the English Bible *ye* is nominative and *you* objective. In Spenser *you*, as a nominative, is emphatic, *ye* is unemphatic.

† In Shakspeare fathers address their sons with *thou*, sons their fathers with *you* (*Abbott*).

‡ 'If thou *thou'st* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss' (*Twelfth N.* iii. 2). 'Prithee don't thee and thou me; I believe I am as good a man as yourself' (*Miller of Mansfield*).

§ The use of the first person plural by royal personages has a similar origin.

the *possessive* sense, they were regarded as adjectives and inflected accordingly.* As the possessive sense is the only one in which we have retained these forms, they should now be regarded as adjectives. *My* and *thy* are short forms of *mine* and *thine*.

135a. *We* is not, in the ordinary sense, the plural of *I*; it does not imply a simple repetition of *myself*. Indeed, the notion involved in *I* does not admit of plurality.†

136. The pronouns of the first and second persons do not mark distinctions of gender, because when a person speaks of himself or to another person, the sex, being evident, does not need to be marked, and the plural forms may include persons of different sexes.

137. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

	First Person.‡			Second Person.		
	Sing.	*Dual.*	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Dual.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	ic	wit	wé–	þú	git	gé
Gen.	mín	uncer	úre (úser)	þín	incer	eówer
Dat.	mé	unc	ús	þé	inc	eów
Acc.	mé (mec)	unc (uncit)	ús (úsic)	þé (þec)	inc (incit)	eów(eówic)

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

	First Person.		Second Person.	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	Ich, Ik, I	we	thou, thow	ye
Gen.	min (myn) mi (my)	our, oure	thin (thyn), thi (thy)	your, youre
Obj.	me	us	the, thee	yow

Ik (with the hard guttural) belonged to the Northern dialect, *Ich* (with the soft *ch*) to the Southern dialect. In early English it was sometimes blended with the verb following § as *ichabbe* = 'I have'; *ichill* = 'I will.'

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

A.—THE PERSONAL PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON.

138. What is commonly called the **Personal Pronoun of the**

* In Anglo-Saxon these genitives, when used as substantives, were governed by verbs, &c., or used in the partitive sense, as 'gemun þu mín' (*remember thou me*) = *memineris mei*. This substantive use of *mín* and *þín* did not last beyond the Anglo-Saxon stage of our language. The substantive use of *our* (*úre*) and *your* (*eówer*) lasted till a later period. Thus in Chaucer (*Prol.* 823) we find "oure aller cok" = 'the cock of us all'; in Piers Plowman "Youre aller hele" = 'the salvation of you all' (*aller*, *alder*, or *ałther* is the same the A.S. genitive *ealra*). So later still 'For both our sakes.' The abbreviated forms *my* and *thy* were not employed till the substantive use of *mín* and *þín* had disappeared.

† In Sanskrit the forms equivalent to *we* and *ye* signified 'I and he,' or 'I and these,' and 'Thou and he,' or 'Thou and these' (*Koch*, i. p. 463).

‡ The forms of the Pronoun of the First Person come from two different stems. *Ik* is connected with the Latin *ego*, the Greek ἐγώ and the Sanskrit *ahan*. The remaining forms belong to a stem *ma*, of which the *m* gets weakened to a *w* in the plural (*Koch*, i. p. 463). *Us* has lost an *n*, which is found in Gothic and the modern German *uns*. (Compare *goose*, *tooth*, &c.).

§ So in *King Lear* (iv. 6, 211), in an imitation of the west country dialect, we find *chill* = 'I will,' *chud* = 'I would.'

Third Person is the Pronoun which is used for speaking of persons or things different both from the speaker and from the person spoken to. It is more correct to call it the **Demonstrative Pronoun** * **of the Third Person.** It is inflected for number, case, and gender.

	Singular.		
	Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*
Nominative Case.....	He	She	It
Possessive Case	His	Her	It's
Objective Case	Him †	Her	It
	Plural.		
Nominative Case.....	They		
Possessive Case	Their	} For all genders.	
Objective Case	Them		

139. The plural forms must be ambiguous as to gender, because they may be used when speaking of persons of different sexes, or of persons and things together.

140. She (*sche* or *scho*) comes from the feminine demonstrative *seo.* ‡ The proper feminine of *he* is *heo*, of which a later form *hoo* is still heard in Lancashire, &c. *Heo* kept its ground in the Midland and Southern dialects long after *scho* or *she* had been adopted in the Northern.

It was in A.S. *hit.* The *t* is a neuter suffix, like *d* in *i-d*, *quo-d*, &c. The regular genitive or possessive case of *hit* was *his*, as "If the salt have lost *his* savour," &c. The possessive case *its* is of comparatively modern origin. § It is found in Shakspeare, but even there *his* is more common. There is only one example ‖ of it in the English Bible (*Lev.* xxv. 5). *Him* continued to be used as an objective of *it* down to a late period. ¶

141. All the modern plural forms of this pronoun, together with the nominative of the feminine singular, are borrowed from the demonstrative *se, seo, þæt.* The genitive plural *her, hir* or *hire*, and the objective plural *hem* were in use (as in Chaucer) for some time after *thai* or *they* had been adopted for the nominative in standard English, and after they had themselves disappeared from the Northern dialect. **

142. The genitive cases of this pronoun were not declined as adjectives in Anglo-Saxon. †† *Their* retained a substantive force after the other

* It is obvious that the signification of a *Personal* Pronoun ought to be complete in itself. But in "*He* to-day that sheds his blood with me"; "*They* in France of the best rank," &c., *he* and *they* only *point to the description that follows.*

† *Him* and *them* were once *dative* cases. (See § 80, *note.*)

‡ The characteristic *s* appears in the Gothic *si*, the old Saxon *siu* and the German *sie.*

§ The form *its* is not only a late, but a false form; the neuter suffix *t* should have been dropped in the possessive, as in *þæs* from *þæt.*

‖ And even there it is a misprint, the original version having *it*, an uninflected possessive not uncommon in early English, as "Go to *it* grandam, child, and *it* grandam will give it a plum" (Shaksp. *K. J.* ii. 1). See note on § 76.

¶ Thus in Lily's grammar we read "The Subjunctive Mood hath commonly some conjunction joined with *him.*"

** The colloquial abbreviation *a* for the third personal pronoun occurs in old writers. "*A* brushes his hat o' mornings. . . A rubs himself with civet" (*Much Ado*, iii. 2). It is still a provincial idiom. It is even used as a plural (*Koch*, i. 469).

†† Traces of inflexion, however, appear later, as in the Ormulum (*Koch*, i. p. 473, ii. p. 234. *Mätzner*, i. p. 316).

possessives had become pronominal adjectives. Traces of their substantive force still exist in their use as antecedents to relatives; as, "whose hatred is covered by deceit, *his* wickedness shall be showed before the whole congregation." "*Their* sorrows shall be multiplied that hasten after another God." They may now, however, be classed with the other possessives.

143. **ANGLO-SAXON FORMS**

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	
Nom.	hé	heó	hit	hi (hig)
Gen.	his	híre	his	híra (heora)
Dat.	him	híre	him	him (heom)
Acc.	hine	hí (hig)	hit	hí (hig)

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*Of all Genders.*
Nom.	he	she, sche	hit, it	thei, they
Gen.	his	hire, hir	his	here (her, hire)
Obj.	him	hire, hir, here	hit, it	hem

B.—POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

144. Besides the simple possessives *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, we use the secondary or double possessive forms, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*.* These are only used when the noun to which they relate is not expressed, as, "My pen is a bad one, give me *yours*." In modern English prose *mine* and *thine* follow the same rule. In poetry *mine* and *thine* are often used for *my* and *thy* before a vowel or mute *h*.

In the phrases *of mine*, *of yours* (as 'a book of mine') some grammarians† consider that we have a repetition of the idea of possession.

C.—THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS THIS AND THAT.

145. The word **this** (*pl.* **these**) and **that** (*pl.* **those**) may be used both as adjectives and as substantives. They refer to *persons* now only when used adjectively.

146. **This** and **That** may be used as **real demonstratives** (to

* Compare the double superlatives (§ 118). It is now usual to omit the apostrophe in these words, but as the older forms were *oures*, *youres*, &c., there is no valid reason for not putting it. Another class of double possessives, *ourn*, *yourn*, &c., though as good as the others, are not recognized in polite English.

† The general explanation is that "a book of *mine*" means "a book *of my books*" (Latham, *Eng. Lang.*, p. 443). If this were necessarily the case, such an expression as "this sweet wee wife of mine," in Burns's song, would suggest unpleasant ideas of bigamy. Koch (ii. p. 236) suggests the explanation that *of* is partitive, and *mine*, &c., universal in sense, so that *of mine* means 'of all that belongs to me.' Perhaps the true explanation is that the *of* does little more than mark identity, as in the expressions, 'The city *of* Rome,' 'A brute *of* a fellow.' In 'a book of yours,' we have a triple expression of the possessive idea, in *of*, *r*, and *s*.

point to things themselves). In this case *This* points to what is 'near me,' *That* points to what is 'at a distance from me,' as '*This* book,' '*That* chair.'

This and **That** may also be used as **logical demonstratives** (to refer to some description or name), as 'The general was in command of a large force. *This* force consisted of infantry and artillery.' They often refer to *whole sentences* or to the *general idea* conveyed by a preceding phrase, as, "I know that he is innocent, and *this* is my chief consolation"; "Lend me a shilling, *that's* a good fellow." Here *that* = 'a person who will lend a shilling.'

When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, *this* refers to what has been mentioned last, *that* refers to what was mentioned before it; as "Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice: *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness."

147. The adverbs *there* and *here*, combined with another adverb, form compounds which are often substituted for *that* and *this* preceded by prepositions; thus *therein = in that; hereby = by this.*

148. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. F. & N.*
1. *Nom.*	þes	þeós	þis	þás
Gen.	þises	þisse, þissere	þises	þissa, þissera
Dat.	þisum	þisse, þissere	þisum	þisum
Acc.	þisne	þás	þis	þás
Instr.	þýs	——	þýs	——

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. F. & N.*
2. *Nom.*	se (þe)	seó (þeó)	þæt	þá
Gen.	þæs	þǽre	þæs	þára (þǽra)
Dat.	þám (þǽm)	þǽre	þám (þǽm)	þám (þǽm)
Acc.	þone (þæne)	þá	þæt	þá
Instr.	þý, þe	——	þý þé	——

149. It will be seen from the above table that **this** and **that** are neuter forms, which have come to be used for all genders.* This simplification was first introduced in the Northern dialect.

When þá came to be used as the plural of *he, she, it*, two forms of it were adopted, *thai, thei*, or *they* for the Personal Pronoun, *tho* or *tha* for the demonstrative adjective. *Thei* and *tho* are thus used in Chaucer, &c. Apparently from confusion with the plural of *this*, the Northern and Midland dialects adopted a form *thas* or *those* for the plural of *that*, as well as *tha* or *tho*, and then *this* received a new plural *thir* (a Scandinavian form), *thise*, or *these*. Ultimately *thas* (*those*) was discarded from the Northern dialect, and *tha* or *tho* from the Midland dialect; but the latter retained *thas* (*those*), which passed into modern English. In vulgar and provincial English *they* and *them* are still used as plural forms of *that*.

The instrumental case þý appears in the form *the* in "*the* sooner *the* better," &c.

* As substantives *this* and *that* were formerly used with reference to either number, as "þis sindon þá dómas" (*this* are the decrees); "þæt were Brut and hys" (*Rob. Gl.*).

D.—THE DEMONSTRATIVES SO, SUCH, AND YON.

150. So (A.S. *swa*) still exists as a **pronoun** * (not *adverb*); as in "I drank a pint or *so* (i.e. or about *that quantity*) of beer"; "I told you *so* (= *that*)"; "Is that man your friend? He is *so*."

Such (A.S. *swilc* or *swylc*) is a compound of *swý* or *swí*, the instrumental case of *swa* (*so*) and *lic* (*like*). It appears in early English in a great variety of forms, *swulc*, *swulch*, *sulch*, *swuch*, *swilch*, *swich*. The form in Chaucer is *swich*. The form *sich* (answering to *which*) is considered vulgar.†

> *Such* is commonly the equivalent of the Latin *talis* ('of that sort'); but it sometimes drops its reference to *quality*, and is a mere demonstrative,‡ as in "If you repay me not on *such* a day, in *such* a place, *such* sum or sums," &c. (*M. of V.*).

Yon, from the A.S. *geond* (= *be-yond*) is now a demonstrative adjective. It has the same root as the German *jen-er*.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

151. A **Relative** § **Pronoun** is a word which **refers** to some noun or pronoun already used to denote the person or thing spoken about, and called the *antecedent* of the relative, and which **joins** the clause in which it stands to that which precedes it. Thus, in the sentence, 'He is reading about the battle that was fought at Hastings,' *that* refers to the noun *battle*, which is called the antecedent to the relative *that*, and joins the clause 'that was fought at Hastings' to the word 'battle' in the preceding clause. In 'This is the man *whose* house we saw,' *whose* refers to *man*, and *man* is the antecedent to *whose*.

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* We are so accustomed to *so* as an *adverb*, that we are apt to think that it must always have been one. But as an adverb, it was in origin only a modification of a pronoun. There is no *adverbial* force in *swa* or *so* in *swa-hwa-sva* or *whoso*. In the Ormulum we find *whasumm* (= whoso), made with the pronoun *sum* (*some*). In *Piers Plowman* (1721) occurs the phrase "by so (= provided that) ye hadde my silver." Here *so* must of course be a demonstrative *pronoun*. In old-fashioned German *so* was used as a relative pronoun.

† Modern standard English has preserved only one of three demonstrative pronouns compounded of *lic* (= *like*), namely *such*. The other two were *ylc* or *ilk* (still used in Scotch), made with *i* or *ý*, the instrumental form of the root *hi* or *i* (in *he*, *it*), and *thilk* or *thylc*, compounded of þý and *lic*. *Thuck* or *theck* (= *that*) is still in use in Wiltshire, &c. *Thilke* is used by Chaucer (*Prol.* 182).

‡ In A.S. *swylc* was a relative (= *qualis*) as well as a demonstrative (= *talis*), as "Swylce gedréfednessa *swylce* ne gewurdon," = 'Such tribulations *such* (= *which* or *as*) were not' (*Mark* xiii. 19).

§ *Relative* is a bad name, because it is insufficient. *He*, *the*, *it*, *that* also *relate* to an antecedent substantive, and therefore have an equally good right to be called *Relative Pronouns*. *Is*, *ipse*, &c., were in fact called *relative pronouns* by the ancient grammarians (*Priscian* xii. 1; xvii. 9). The essential characteristic of the so-called Relative Pronouns is, that they are *connective pronouns*, and have *the power of grammatical subordination*. The best name for them would be *Subjunctive Pronouns*. This would, in fact, only be a revival of the *Articulus Subjunctivus* of the Latin grammarians (*Priscian*, *l. c.*).

152. The Relative Pronouns in English are the following:—

(1.) THE RELATIVE PRONOUN THAT.

That is the oldest of our relative pronouns.* It is the neuter of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative *se, seo, thæt*, used now for all genders. All relative pronouns were once demonstrative or interrogative. In old English the relative or connective force was given to the demonstrative pronoun † by doubling the demonstrative word, an indeclinable particle þe (*the*), which was, in fact, only a weakened form of the ordinary demonstrative, being placed after *se, seo, thæt*. Sometimes the demonstrative dropped out, and the indeclinable *the* appeared as a relative; sometimes *the* was dispensed with, and the simple demonstrative itself was used as a relative. *That* is always a substantive; it may relate either to persons or to things. It is now uninflected,‡ and never has a preposition placed before it. If it is governed by a preposition, the preposition is put at the end of the sentence.§

That cannot now be used in all cases where *who* can be used. *Who* sometimes has a merely *continuative* force, being equivalent to *and he* (see *Syntax, adjective clauses*), but a clause beginning with *that*

* Addison is quite wrong when in his "Humble Petition of *who* and *which*" he makes the petitioners say: "We are descended of ancient families, and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the Jack Sprat *that* supplanted us." "*That* came into use during the twelfth century to supply the place of the indeclinable relative *the*, and in the fourteenth century it is the ordinary relative. In the sixteenth century *which* often supplies its place; in the seventeenth century *who* replaces it. About Addison's time *that* had again come into fashion, and had almost driven *which* and *who* out of use" (*Morris*). Steele ridicules the too common use of *that* in the sentence: "My lords, with humble submission, that that I say is this; that that that gentleman has advanced is not that that he should have proved to your lordships" (*Spect.* 80). (Ben Jonson's statement that *which* was the only relative is incomprehensible in view of the usage of his time.)

† The connective or subordinative force of *that* is not inherent in the pronoun itself, but is infused into it by the intelligence of the hearer. Originally the principal clause and the relative clause were co-ordinate, as "Se hæfð brýd, se is brýdguma" = 'He has the bride, he is the bridegroom.' The preponderating importance of the defining clause was marked by strengthening or doubling the demonstrative, the uninflected form þe being appended to the inflected form:—"*Se* þe brýd hæfð, se is brýdguma" = '*He that* has the bride,' &c.

The indeclinable þe could even give a connective or relative force to the Personal Pronouns, as "Fæder úre þu þe eart on heofenum," 'Our Father *which* (= *thou that*) art in heaven'; "Ic eom Gabriel, ic þe stande beforan Gode" ('I am Gabriel, *who* stand before God'). Compare *der ich, der du*, &c, in German.

‡ The want of inflexion was formerly supplied by putting the requisite form of the demonstrative pronoun of the third person where it would indicate the construction of the relative. Thus in Chaucer, 'A knight ther was . . . *That* from the time that he first began To ryden out, *he* lovede chyvalrye' (*Prol.* 43), where *that* — *he* = *who*. 'A litel clergeon . . . *That* day by day to scole was *his* wone' (*Prior. T.*, where *that* — *his* = *whose*). It answers to a well-known vulgar use of *which*:—'Let her take a jolly p'liceman, *Which* perhaps *his* name is X.' (*Thackeray*). This idiom is still common in Lowland Scotch, as:—"The man *at* (= that) *his* weyfe's deid," 'The man *whose* wife is dead' (Murray, *l. c.* p. 196). This construction was common in Anglo-Saxon with the uninflected þe, as "Eadig ys se þeow þe hys hlaford *hyne* gemet" = 'Blessed is the servant *whom* (= *that him*) his lord finds,' &c. *At* is the common relative in Lowland Scotch. It is also found in Hampole (*e.g.* 171). *At* is the Scandinavian form of *that*.

§ In such cases we should perhaps regard the preposition as an adverb forming a compound with the verb. Formerly the preposition (or adverb) was placed *before* the verb, as though we should say "the land which they in-lived"; "the settlement which they from were driven" (*Koch*, ii. p. 260). This idiom was first adopted for the uninflected *the* and *that*, and afterwards extended to the other relatives.

limits the noun to which it refers, and is therefore improper when that noun does not admit of further limitation. Hence we cannot say 'Thomas *that* died yesterday,' or 'My father *that* is in America.' **That** was formerly used like **what**, with its antecedent understood,* as "*That* thou doest, do quickly" (*John* xiii. 27).

(2.)—THE INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS WHO, WHAT, WHICH, WHETHER.

153. The pronoun **who**, neuter **what** (A.S. *hwa*,† neuter *hwæt*) was in Anglo-Saxon an Interrogative Pronoun.

Modern Forms.		**Anglo-Saxon Forms.**		
		Masc. Fem.		*Neut.*
Nom.	Who‡	*Nom.*	hwá	hwæt
Poss.	Whose	*Gen.*	hwæs	hwæs
Obj.	Whom	*Dat.*	hwám (hwǽm)	hwám (hwǽm)
		Acc.	hwone (hwæne)	hwæt
		Inst.	——	hwí (hwý)

154. What has the neuter suffix *t*. It is the neuter of *who*. It is now indeclinable, and is used not only as a substantive, but also as an adjective.§ When used as a substantive it is neuter.

155. Which (A.S. *hwylc* or *hwilc*), is a compound of *hwí* or *hwý* (the old instrumental case of *hwa*), and *líc* (*like*). In Scotch it is still *quhilk*. It was equivalent to the Latin *qualis*, 'of what sort?'‖ It is properly an adjective, as "Which dress do you prefer?" but is also used substantively, as "Here are port and sherry, which will you take?" *Which* asks for one out of a definite number;¶ *who* and *what* ask indefinitely.

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* In such sentences, however, we might regard *that* as the antecedent of a suppressed relative (see *Adjective Clauses* in the Syntax). This is actually the construction of "Gebyrgde þæs on þæm beáme geweóx," 'Tasted *of that* [which] grew on the tree' (Caedmon, *Gen.* 483). But it is the antecedent which is omitted in "ðonne ábirst út ðæs ðe hé swygian sceolde," 'then bursts out [that] *about which* he should be silent' (Alf. *Trans. of Cura Past*).

† *Hwa* has the same root as the Latin *quis* and *qui*. *H* was guttural in A.S. We still pronounce the *h* before the *w* in *what*, &c.

‡ Note that these are all *singular* forms. So in Latin *se*, *sui*, *sibi* are singular *forms*, even when they relate to more than one.

§ Like the neuters *this* and *that* it was used predicatively in Anglo-Saxon as a substantive without regard to gender and number, as "Hwæt syndon ge?" (*what are ye?*). It was often followed by the genitive case, as "hwæt godes?" (*what of good?*); "hwæt weorces?" (*what of work?*). When the genitive suffix came to be dropped, except when it denoted possession, these combinations gave rise to an apparently adjectival use of *what*, which was subsequently admitted before masculine and feminine as well as before neuter nouns. *What* is used adjectively with an intensive force in exclamations, as "What a fool he was!"; "What knaves they are." In old English *which* was similarly used, as "O. which a pitous thing it was" (Chaucer, *Cl. T.* 1086).

What is sometimes used as an adverb, as "What (i.e. for what purpose) need we any further witness?" "Lord, what these weathers are cold" (*Wakefield Myst.*).

‖ "He wiste hwæt and hwylc þys wíf wære," 'He would have known what, and *of what sort* this woman was.' This sense has now vanished.

¶ This restriction is, however, purely arbitrary.

156. Whether (A.S. *hwæðer*) is derived from *who* (*hwa*) by means of the suffix *ther*,* and means 'which of the two?'

WHO, WHAT, and WHICH as RELATIVES.

157. From being simply *Interrogatives*, the above Pronouns (like *quis* and τίς) acquired the force of *Indefinite* Pronouns,† meaning *some* (or *any*) *one* or *thing*, especially after *if* (*gif*). We still have this sense in the phrase "As *who* should say," (*i.e.* 'as should some one say,' or 'as [if] some one should say'), and in the compounds *somewhat*, &c. They were then converted into *Indefinite Relatives* by the addition of the pronouns *so*, *some*, or *that*‡ (which had already acquired a connective or subordinative sense), the compounds of *so* being often strengthened by the addition of *ever*.

Whoso and *Whoever* are not now declined, but *soever* may be added to all the three cases of *who*.

158. Lastly *who*, *which*, and *what* were used as relatives without *so* or *that* appended.§

Who refers only to persons. Its antecedent is sometimes omitted, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash."

What was originally the neuter of *who*, and, as a substantive, refers only to an antecedent that is neuter and singular. It is also used adjectively, as "I gave him what help I could;" "What time I am afraid, I will trust in Thee." The possessive case of it (*whose* = *hwæs* or *whas*), is still in use, though rarely employed except in poetry: as "The question *whose* solution I require" (*Dryden*); "I could a tale unfold, *whose* lightest word," &c. (*Shakspeare*); "The roof, *whose* thickness was not vengeance proof" (*Byron*). *Whom* is no longer used as a neuter objective.‖

When *what* is used as a relative in modern English, the antecedent is

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* *Uter* (once *quuter* or *cuter*, from *quis*) is precisely analogous to *whether*, as is πότερος from the cognate root πο.

† That is to say, in order to indicate a person or thing as yet unknown or undetermined, a word was employed that asked *who* or *what* it was. This use of the interrogative was quite common in Anglo-Saxon, as "gif *hwa* eów ænig þing tô cwyð" (*Matt.* xxi. 3), 'If *any one* say anything to you'; "Gif eów *hwylc* segð" (*Mark* xiii. 21), 'If any man say to you.' In 'I'll tell you *what*,' 'what' = *something*. The derived adverbs *when*, *where*, *how*, &c., had in like manner an indefinite sense. We still say *somewhere*, *somehow*, &c.

‡ Chaucer still uses *that* or *as* for a mark of *relativity* or *subordination* after *who* and its derivatives, as "*Whom that* I serve" (*Kn. T.* 373); 'Catoun *which that* was so wis a man' (*N. P. T.* 120). Similarly '*when that* the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept' (*Shaksp.*); '*when as* sacred light began to dawn' (*Milton*). *Whereas* still keeps its ground. In A.S. *swa* was placed before as well as after the *hwa*, *swa-hwa-swa*. In the Ormulum we find *whasumm* and *whatsumm* for *whoso* and *whatso*. This formation is still preserved in the (now vulgar) words *whatsomever*, *whosomever*, &c., sometimes turned into *whatsomedever*, &c.

§ *What* (*hwæt*) was sometimes a relative in A.S., as "þæt hwæt David dyde" = 'that what David did' (*Luke* vi. 3). The genitive and dative of *who* were used as relatives earlier than the nominative. *Wha* (*who*) as a relative in the nominative is first found in the Ormulum (*c.* 9445). See March, *A.S. Gram.* p. 179.

‖ In Wycliffe we find "The fyge tree *whom* thou cursedist" (*Mark* xi. 21).

suppressed.* In poetry it is sometimes followed by *that*, as "What he hath won, that hath he fortified" (*King J.* iii 4).

159. Instead of *what*, the ordinary relative relating to animals or things is **which**. (§ 155.)

160. It is, however, quite a mistake to call '*which*' the neuter of '*who*.' It was formerly used like 'who,' as "Our Father *which* art in heaven." In Chaucer it is followed by *that* ('which that,' or 'the which that'), and long after was preceded by *the*, as in the English Bible and Shakspeare. (Compare the French *le quel*.)

161. The proper correlative of *which* is *such* (§ 150), as "Such which must go before" (*Bacon*). *Such—which = talis—qualis.*

162. *Which* preceded by a preposition is often replaced by *where, as wherein = in which; whereto = to which*, &c.

163. *Who* and *which* can always be used where *that*† can be used. They have also a *continuative* force, which *that* never has. (See § 152.)

164. The relative pronoun is frequently understood, as, "That is the person I spoke of," "for the person *whom* I spoke of." But it is not now omitted unless, if expressed, it would be in the objective case.

(3.)—THE RELATIVE PRONOUN AS.

165. The word **as** (A.S. *ealswa = also*, i.e. *all so*, German *als*) is often used as a relative pronoun, especially after *same* and *such*; as, "This is not the same *as* that;" "His character is not such *as* I admire." So also in the phrases *as to* and *as for*, *as* is a relative pronoun, the subject of a verb understood. In "As to that, I have nothing to say," 'as to that' = '*quod ad hoc* [*attinet*]' = '*what* [relates] to that.' So in French 'quant à vous' = *quantum ad vos attinet*. *As* is a strengthened form of *so*, which, as we have seen (§ 150), is sometimes a pronoun, and, like *that*, might have a relative force.‡

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

166. The numeral **one** is also an **Indefinite Pronoun.**

The numeral **one** is an indefinite demonstrative when used as the

* In the older writers we find *all what, that what*, &c.

In some grammars *what* is called a *compound relative*. This is wrong and misleading. The name is absurd, because *what* is not a compound word at all, though large numbers of unfortunate learners are actually led to believe that *what* is made up of the beginning of *which* and the end of *that*. *What* is not even *equivalent* to *that which*; it is nothing more than a relative with its antecedent suppressed, like *who* in the sentence quoted above. Those who make *what* contain its own antecedent, should equally make the antecedent contain its own relative in "That is the *man* I spoke of," and call 'man' a *compound antecedent*.

† Some grammarians assert that *who* and *which* are not properly used to introduce a *limiting* or *defining* clause, and that in such sentences as "That is the man *who* spoke to us yesterday," "The house *which* he built still remains," the word *that* is preferable. The best writers of English prose do not countenance this view.

‡ *As* is clearly an ordinary Relative Pronoun in Chaucer (*Kn. T.* 1000), "his hundred *as* I spak of now." So in Maundeville (quoted by Skeat), "Zaracon *as* was fadre to Salahadyn." Mr. Skeat (*Et. Dict. s. v.*) considers *as* to be identical with the old Scandinavian relative *es*. This is an interesting view of the matter, but the analogy of the relative *so* used in old-fashioned German seems to show that the relative *as* may be treated as a compound of *so*.

article *an*. It has long been used in the sense of 'some—or other,' 'a certain.' Thus (as an **adjective**) "His wrath which *one* day will destroy ye both" (*Milton*); "*One* Titus Oates had drawn on himself censure, &c." (*Macaulay*). As a **substantive** it was used to denote *some one*, or more, of a class already named, as "Get me some better pens, this is a bad *one*" (*or* these are bad *ones*); and then came to be used as a general indefinite demonstrative, as "*One* in a certain place testified" (*Heb.* ii. 6). It is very common after *some*, *each*, and *every*, and is used in the plural, as "That the poor may fall by his strong *ones*" (*Ps.* x. 10). As an indefinite substantive it assumed the sense of the French *on* (= *homme*), as, "A quiet conscience makes *one* so serene" (*Byron*); "A sonnet to *one's* mistress" (*Shakspeare*). In this sense it at last ousted the old Anglo-Saxon word **man** (= German *man*), which we still find in Chaucer as **men*** or **me**, and which was also in part replaced by the indefinite *they*.

None (= *ne án*) as a substantive in the singular† is now obsolete, having been replaced by *no one*. In *everybody*, *somebody*, &c., 'body' is used as a kind of indefinite pronoun.

167. Aught (A.S. *áwiht*) is derived from the Anglo-Saxon substantive *wiht*, a 'thing,' or 'creature' (used as a masculine‡ in *wight*) and *á* = *ever*. The negative of *aught* is **naught** or **nought**. **Not** is the same word, used as an adverb.

168. Any (*ænig*) is a derivative from **án**, 'one,' just as **ullus** in Latin is a diminutive of **unus** (Key, *Lat. Gr.* § 334). It is properly an indefinite *demonstrative* adjective; as in "Did you see *any* person?" but it is also used as an indefinite *quantitative* adjective, referring either to *number* or to *quantity*, as 'I did not take any apples'; 'Will you have any bread?'

169. Other implies 'not this one' (out of some two) (like the Latin *alter*). It is formed from the root *an*,§ a variation of the *al* of ἄλλος and *alter*, by means of the comparative suffix *ther* (see § 155, note). As a substantive it has the ordinary inflexions of a noun.

170. Some (A.S. *sum*) originally meant 'a certain'‖ (Lat. *quidam*). It still has this force in *somebody*, *sometimes*, *something*.

* This *men* is not a plural; see *e.g.* 'That blisful yok which that men clepeth (*sing.*) spousail' (*Cl. T.* 115). The fact that *man* or *men* maintained its ground during the period when the influence of Norman-French was strongest, and only disappeared after that influence had ceased, is opposed to the idea that the indefinite *one* is identical with the French *on* = *homme*. This view, however, is held by Latham and other good authorities.

† *E.g.* "None better knows than you" (*M. for M.* I. 3, 7).

‡ "He was a wight of high renown" (*Othello II.* 1, 159). We also employ it in the form *whit* ('not a whit') as a neuter.

§ Not the *an* that means 'one.' In Moeso-Gothic 'one' is '*ain*,' but 'other' is '*anthar*' (not *ainthar*).

‖ Thus "sum man hæfde twegen suna," 'a *certain man* had two sons' (*Luke* xv. 11); "His feonda sum," '*one* of his enemies' (*Matt.* xiii. 25).

It now also denotes an undetermined part of a whole, and is used with numerals to give the sense of *about*, as "He will last you some eight year or nine year" (*Hamlet*). It is the pronoun of indefiniteness with respect either to quantity or to relation, as in "I have *some* money"; "This is *some* monster of the isle."

† THE DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

171. Each (A.S. *ælc* = *á-ge-hwylc*,* *i.e.*, 'ever every one of a sort,') is used both adjectively and substantively.

172. In the phrases '**each other**,' '**one another**,' the two pronouns were formerly independent in their construction, as "They foynen (thrust) ech at other" (Chaucer, *Kn. T.* 796). "With greedy force each other doth assail," (*Spenser*), i.e., "*each* doth assail *other*." So in old-fashioned English we find '**each to other**,' '**one from another**,' and so on. Nowadays *both* pronouns are placed after the preposition, as "They did not speak **to each other** for a week;" "They hear **from one another** daily." The pronouns must therefore now be regarded as forming a sort of compound like the Greek *alleloi*.

It is customary to use *each other* when *two* are referred to, *one another* when more than two are referred to, but this distinction does not spring out of the meaning of the words.

173. Every (old English *everælc*, *everilk*, or *everych*, that is, *ever each*) is a compound of A.S. *aefre*, 'ever,' and *ælc*, and denotes all of a series taken one by one.

Each may refer to *two* or to more than two; *every* is now † used only with reference to more than two.

In Chaucer *everych* (*every*) is used as a substantive. We still say 'each and every' in legal phraseology.

Every has much the same meaning as *each*, but in a stronger form, equivalent to 'each without exception.'

174. Either has two meanings and represents two separate words. 1. It means 'each of two,' as, "On either side one" (*John* xix. 18). In this sense it is the modern form of the Anglo-Saxon 'ægðer' (ægther) = 'á-ge-hwæðer,' a compound of *á* = ever, and *gehwæther* = 'both,' where the syllable *ge* has its collective force (see § 171, note). 2. It means 'one of two, but not both.' In this sense it represents 'á-hwæðer' ('ever some one of two'), but is, in fact, the modern form of *ægther*, which has supplanted the

* The particle *ge* was prefixed to the indefinite pronouns in Anglo-Saxon to give the idea of universality or aggregation, as *ge-hwa* = *every one*; *ge-hwylc* = *every one*; *ge-hwæðer* = *both*. (Compare the German *Gebrüder* and *Geschwister*.) These forms were strengthened by prefixing *á* = *ever*. Hence came *á-ge-hwylc* = *ælc* = *each*; *á-ge-hwæðer* = *ægðer* = *either*. *Eall-lîc* (all-like) and *á-ge-lîc* (ever alike) have also been suggested as etymologies.

† Chaucer uses it when speaking of *two*, as "Everych of hem help for to armen other' (*Kn. T.* 793).

form *awther*, *other* or *outher*.* *Neither* (A.S. *náðer*) is a compound of the latter and the negative *ne*, and used to be spelt *nother* or *nouther*, but has got assimilated to *either*.

175. **Either** may be inflected as a substantive of the singular number, as "Where either's fall determines both their fates."
Each, every, either, and **neither** are always singular.†

REFLECTIVE PRONOUNS.

176. The **objective case** of the Personal Pronouns, and of the demonstrative *he, she, it,* may be used in a **reflective sense** (Latin *reflecto*, 'I bend back'), when an action directly or indirectly affects the doer of it. Thus—

"I'll disrobe me" (Shakspeare, *Cymb.* v. 1, 22).
"I can buy me twenty" (*Macb.* iv. 2, 40).
"Prepare thee" (Sh. *M. Ven.* iv. 1, 324).
"Get thee wood enough" (*Tempest*, ii. 2, 165).
"Signor Antonio commends him to you" (*M. V.* iii. 2, 235).
"Let every soldier hew him down a bough" (*Macb.* v. 44).

177. In Anglo-Saxon the personal pronouns, in whatever case they were used, were strengthened by having the adjective *silf*, i.e. *self* (= *same* ‡) agreeing with them, as *me silfum*, *his silfes*, &c. But even in A.S. we find the curious idiom, that strengthened reflectives in the dative case (*me-silf, us-silf*, &c., made with an uninflected *silf*) were placed in apposition to pronouns in the nominative, in place of the inflected adjective *silf* or *self* ('*I me silf*,' '*we us silf*,' &c), or might be used as nominatives by themselves.§ Constructions of this type were common for all three persons, and are still used for the Third Person, *himself, herself*, &c.

Very early, however, *self* came to be regarded as a substantive,‖ and

* In A.S. *áðer* existed side by side with *æghwæðer*. *Other* or *outher* (= *á-hwæðer*) must not be confounded with the '*other*' which = Gothic *anthar* (§ 169). It is still used in some provincial dialects.

† The older writers were not clear upon this point. Shakspeare frequently gives a plural sense to *every* and *neither*. Thus "Every one to rest themselves betake" (*Rape of Lucrece*, 125); "When neither are alive" (*Cymb.* iv. 2, 252).

‡ "In that selve moment," = 'in that *same* moment' (*Chaucer*); "That self (= *same*) mould" (*Shakspeare*). Compare the compound *self-same*.

§ Thus "Pilatus hymself áwrát ealle þá þing" ('Pilate himself wrote all those things.' *Evang. Nic.* 34); "Hym self wæs on heofenas farende" ('Himself was going to heaven,' *ib.* 34); "If hemself wolde" ('if *themself* would.' *Piers Pl.* 12689) "Thei can hemself devyse" (Chaucer, *Kn. T.* 396); "We us self" (Chaucer, *Cl. T.* 108). We find an inflected form of *self* in early English. Thus:—"þurrh Godd Allmahhtig sellfenn" (*Orm.* 4131); "What = why) should he make himselven wood, i.e. *mad* (Chaucer, *Prol.* 184). "He loved his neighbour as himselve" (*Prol.* 835). Also with the nominative, "I myselven" (*Prol.* 803). These examples show that the suffix *-en* was not restricted to marking the plural. It is not unlikely that the dative which seems to be in apposition to a nominative is rather a *dative absolute*. "I myself did it" = 'I, no one helping me, did it.'

‖ This substantive use of *self* is clearly seen in "My own self," "Your own selves," &c. *Themselves* seems to have the plural *selves* in apposition to *them*. The substantive *self* is found in A.S, as "heora ágenes sylfes" (*Mätzner*, ii. p. 11).

was preceded by the possessive pronouns (*myself, thyself, ourselves,* yourselves*). This combination was formerly (and quite as legitimately) used for the third person (*his-self, theirselves*). The history of all these changes of usage is obscure and perplexing.

178. There is nothing *reflective* about the word *self*, either as adjective or as substantive. (See *e.g.* "He himself said so"; "I love you for yourself alone," &c.). The reflective force belongs altogether to the *pronoun* to which it is appended.

179. In early English writers we find *ane* or *one* (= A.S. *ana*, 'alone') used like *self*. Thus "All himm ane" = *all by himself* (*Orm.* 1025); "Him ane bi himm sellfenn" = *him alone by himself* (*Orm.* 822); "Walkyng myn one" = *walking by myself* (*Piers Pl.* 5023). The word *lane* (= *alone*) is still used thus in Scotch, as 'my lane' (by myself), 'him lane' (by himself). The pronoun appears to vary between the possessive and the objective, as it does with *self*.

VERB.

180. Definition. A **verb**† is a word by means of which we can **say something** about some person or thing.

The word which stands for what is spoken about is called the **subject** of the verb, and is in the **nominative case.** In relation to the **Subject,** the verb is called the **Predicate.**

A verb tells us with regard to what is spoken about that it **does something,** or that it **is in some state,** or that it **has something done to it.**

Verbs as well as adjectives stand for attributes; but when we attach an adjective to a noun, as in 'a flying eagle,' the phrase denotes two notions which are regarded as already united into one compound whole; when we attach a verb to a noun, as in 'the eagle flies,' the use of the verb *effects the union* of the two notions. (See § 26.)

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

181. Verbs are divided into two classes—

1. Transitive‡ Verbs. 2. Intransitive Verbs.

A **Transitive Verb** is one which denotes an action or feeling which is directed towards some object,§ as, *strike*, "He *strikes* the

* When *our* and *your* relate to a single person, *ourself* and *yourself* are used, as "We will ourself in person to the war"; "You must do it yourself."

† Latin *verbum* ('word'), the verb being emphatically *the word* of the sentence. *Verbum* imperfectly represents the Greek term ῥῆμα, which means 'predicate.'

‡ Latin *transire*, 'to go across'; the action *goes over*, as it were, from the doer to the object.

§ A verb does not cease to be transitive because the object of the action is too vague to be expressed. In: "About, seek, fire, kill" (Shaksp. *J. C.*) the verbs are all transitive. It will of course be understood that a transitive verb is still transitive when it is used in the *passive voice*. It still denotes an action directed to an object, although that object is denoted by the *subject* of the passive verb.

ball;" *love*, "He *loves* his father." The word which stands for the object of the action described by the verb is called the **object of the verb.** It is put in the objective case. The *grammatical* object of a *verb* must not be confounded with the *real* object of the *action.*

An **Intransitive Verb** is one which denotes a *state* or *condition*, or an action or feeling which is not directed towards an object; as, *to be, to dwell, to sit, to rejoice, to run.* Verbs of this kind are sometimes called Neuter Verbs.

182. Many verbs are used, with a difference of meaning, sometimes as transitive verbs, sometimes as intransitive verbs; as, "He *ran* away;" "He *ran* a thorn into his finger." "The child *speaks* already," *i.e.* 'utters articulate sounds'; "He *speaks* several languages," *i.e.* 'employs the languages to express his thoughts.' A transitive verb is used reflectively when the action which it denotes is done by the doer to himself, and the verb is consequently followed by a reflective pronoun. This pronoun, however, is often omitted, as "The sea breaks (itself) on the rocks;" "The earth moves (itself);" "The clouds spread (themselves) over the sky;" "The boats drew (themselves) clear of one another;" "The needle turns (itself) towards the pole." Verbs thus used must not be confounded with intransitive verbs. In old English intransitive verbs were often followed by a pronoun used reflectively, as "Hie thee * home;" "Fare thee well;" "Sit thee down." Some compound verbs are used curiously in this way, as, "To over-sleep oneself;" "He over-ate himself;" "Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself," *i.e.*, 'leaps farther than it intended,' and some verbs complemented by an adjective, as "I have *talked* myself *hoarse;*" "The child *screamed* itself *black* in the face."†

Reflective verbs are not a particular kind of verb, but simply transitive verbs used in a particular manner.

183. Transitive verbs are sometimes used with a sort of passive signification, as "The meat cuts tough," *i.e.*, 'is tough when it is cut'; "The cakes eat short and crisp," *i.e.*, 'are short and crisp when they are eaten'; "The book sold well"; "The bait took"; "The bed feels hard," *i.e.*, 'it is hard when it is felt'; "The rose smells sweet"; "The wine tastes sour."

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* In such phrases the pronoun was originally in the *dative*, marking that the actor was affected by the action, but not that he was the *direct object* of it. Thus:—"Hie *him* hámweard ferdon," 'They marched *them* homewards' (Alf. *Oros*, i. 9). Sometimes what looks like an accusative (or objective) of cognate meaning may be regarded as a complement of the predicate. Thus "It rained fire and brimstone" = 'It rained, and the rain was fire, &c.' For the use of what is called the *cognate objective* (as in 'to run a race') see the Syntax.

† The following verbs are some of those that may be used reflectively without having the reflective pronoun expressed:—*push, extend, stretch, drag, rest, lean, incline, keep, set, bend, feed, open, shut, harden, shorten, lengthen, melt, dissolve, recover, reform, prepare, wash, yield, change, dash, refrain, obtrude, intrude, pour, press, remove, settle, steal.*

Several intransitive verbs were once reflective, as *wend* (*went*), *abscond, venture, depart, consort, retire*, &c.

The following are a few of those which are both transitive and intransitive:—*act, talk, cat, drink, blow, fly, grow, abide, answer, boil, rain, shake, slip, stay, survive*, &c.

This is probably the origin of such passive expressions as "A great experiment was making" (*Macaulay*); "A treaty of union was negotiating" (*Robertson*). Only a limited number of verbs admit of this construction.

INFLEXIONS OF VERBS AND SUBSTITUTES FOR INFLEXION.

184. Verbs admit of the following modifications:—**Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person.**

These are expressed partly by **inflexion,** partly by the use of **auxiliary verbs.**

Number and **Person** are expressed solely by inflexion, **Voice, Mood,** and **Tense** partly by inflexion and partly by the use of **Auxiliary Verbs.**

Notional and Auxiliary Verbs.

185. A verb is a *notional* verb, when it is so used as to retain its full and proper meaning, as "I *will* go" (*i.e.*, 'I am resolved to go'); "You *may* play in the garden" (*i.e.*, 'You are permitted to play'); "Thou *shalt* not steal" (*i.e.*, 'thou art bound not to steal'); "He *would* not come when I called him" (*i.e.*, 'He did not choose to come').

A verb is an *auxiliary* verb when its own proper signification drops out of sight, and it merely serves to mark some modification of the notion expressed by another verb. Thus in "He *will* fall," '*will*' does not imply that he is resolved to fall, but only marks futurity. In "I work hard that I *may* gain the prize," *may* does not express permission, but helps to indicate the subjunctive mood of the verb 'gain.' In "I *have* been ill," *have* has altogether lost the idea of *possessing*, and has become a mere *tense-sign.**

Notional verbs and auxiliary verbs are not two distinct classes; the same verb may be sometimes notional and sometimes auxiliary.

VOICE.

186. Voice is the form of a verb by means of which we show whether the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer,** or for the **object** of the action spoken of by the verb. There are two voices—**1. The Active Voice. 2. The Passive Voice.**

The **Active Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb; as, "The boy *strikes* the ball." "The cat *killed* the mouse."

* All inflexions were once significant *words*, which were attached to other words, but have become so worn down by use, that in many cases their original meaning can be only guessed at. Their origin is illustrated by the *d* of *loved*, which can be traced to *love-did*, i.e., *did-love*. So in French *j'irai* is made up of *je-ir-ai*, i.e., *ego-ire-habeo* = 'I have to go.' The use of auxiliaries is therefore a return to the original method of going to work.

The **Passive Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb; as, "The ball *is struck* by the boy." "The mouse *was killed* by the cat."

The same action may be expressed by either voice, but then the word that is the *object* of the active verb must be the *subject* of the passive.

187. In the strict sense of the above definition only transitive verbs could properly be used in the passive voice, and only the *direct object* of the active verb could become the *subject* of the passive verb. This is in fact the usage in Latin, German, &c. But English has blended the *accusative* and the *dative* into *one* case, the 'objective,' and as a consequence of this allows (in most cases) the *objective of either kind of object* to become the *subject* of the passive. "I told him the news" becomes either "The news was told him," or "He was told the news."

Moreover English has singular freedom in the way in which it treats groups of words as though they were single nouns, verbs, &c. (See § 75.) When a complex expression containing a verb in the active voice is attended by a noun or pronoun in the objective, whether after a preposition or not, that noun or pronoun may be made the subject of a complex passive phrase. Thus we may say: "He spoke to the man—the man was spoken to"; "They took great care of him—he was taken great care of." Similarly, "He was promised a new coat"; "The dead were refused burial," &c.

188. The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by prefixing the various parts of the verb **be** to the **perfect participle** of the verb.* The perfect participle of a transitive verb is **passive** in meaning.

Some intransitive verbs have their perfect tenses formed by means of the verb *be*, followed by the past or perfect participle; as, "I *am* come"; "He *is* gone." Great care must be taken not to confound these with passive verbs. The sign of the passive voice is not the verb *be*, but the *passive participle* that follows it. *Come* and *gone* are not passive.

MOOD.

189. **Moods** † (that is **Modes**) are certain variations of form in verbs, by means of which we can show the mode or manner in

* In Latin and Greek the Passive Voice has sprung out of the Middle or Reflective Verb. Thus *amatur* is made up of *amat* and a reflective pronoun. So in the Scandinavian languages a passive is made by attaching the reflective pronoun to the active voice. In the third person this suffix was *-sk*. A trace of this formation is found in English in two verbs, *viz.*, "to busk" = 'to get oneself ready' (from *bua* 'to prepare'), and 'bask' = 'bathe oneself.'

In Anglo-Saxon and early English the passive verb was also made with the auxiliary *weorðan* 'to become,' as the passive voice is now made with *werden* in German. Thus (in *Piers Pl.*), "No creature withouten cristendom *worth saved*." The verb *weorðan* is probably connected with *vertere* 'to turn.' We still say "The milk *turned* (= *became*) sour."

† *Mood* comes from the Latin *modus*, "*manner*"; *Indicative* from *indicare*, "*to point out*"; *Imperative* from *imperare*, "*to command*"; *Subjunctive* from *subjungere*, "*to join on to*"; *Infinitive* from *infinitus*, "*unlimited*," i.e., as regards person, number, &c.

which the action or fact denoted by the verb is connected in our thought with the thing that is spoken of.*

There are four moods † :—

A. Three Finite Moods. 1. The Indicative Mood. 2. The Imperative Mood. 3. The Subjunctive Mood.
B. The Infinitive Mood.

I.—THE FINITE MOODS.

1.—THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

190. The **Indicative Mood** comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to some event or state of things which is treated by the speaker as *actual*, and independent of his thought about it; as, "He *struck* the ball"; "We *shall set* out to-morrow"; "If he *was* guilty ‡ his punishment *was* too light."

2.—THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

191. The Imperative Mood is a form of the verb by means of which we utter a command, request, or exhortation; as, "*Give* me that book." "*Go* away." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted, but may be expressed, as, "Go *thou* and do likewise." Its subject must of course be in the second person.

When we express our will in connection with the first or third person, we either employ the subjunctive mood (as "Cursed *be* he that first cries hold"; "Go *we* to the king"), or make use of the imperative

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* "Modi sunt diversae inclinationes animi, varios ejus affectus significantes" (*Priscian*). There is a great deal of discrepancy and confusion in the statements of the ancient grammarians about the Moods. Opinion ultimately settled down amongst the Roman grammarians to the recognition of five Moods, the *Indicative*, *Imperative*, *Optative*, *Subjunctive*, and *Infinitive*. The separation of the Optative and Subjunctive was perfectly needless. The forms were identically the same, it was only the uses to which the forms were put that differed. It would have been as reasonable to give half a dozen names to the Ablative Case, according to the uses to which it was put.

† To these moods many grammarians add the *Potential Mood*, meaning by that mood certain combinations of the so-called auxiliary verbs *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *must*, with the infinitive mood. This is objectionable. *I can write*, and *I must go*, are no more *moods* of the verbs *write* and *go*, than *possum scribere* is a mood of *scribo* in Latin; or, *Je puis écrire*, *Ich kann schreiben* and *Ich muss gehen* moods of the verbs *écrire*, *schreiben*, and *gehen* in French and German. Moreover, this potential mood would need to be itself subdivided into Indicative forms and Subjunctive forms. The sentences "I *could* do this at one time, but I cannot now," and "I *could* not do this, if I were to try," do not contain the same parts of the verb *can*. In the first sentence, *could* is in the indicative mood; in the second, it is in the subjunctive mood. (For a full discussion of the subject see the Appendix to the author's 'Shorter English Grammar,' or his "Remarks on the Subjunctive and the so-called Potential Mood," published separately.)

‡ This *conditional use* of the Indicative Mood must not be confounded with the *Subjunctive* or (as it is sometimes called) *Conditional* Mood. Let particular attention be paid to this. A verb is not in the Subjunctive Mood because it is used in a *subjoined clause*.

let (which is of the *second* person, with its subject omitted), followed by an infinitive complement, as, "Let us pray"; "Let him be heard." These are not imperative forms of *pray* and *hear*.*

3.—THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

192. The Subjunctive Mood comprises those forms † of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to an event or state of things which is only *thought of*, and which is not treated by the speaker as *matter of fact*, independent of his thought about it.‡

If we use the term *Objective* for what is regarded as having an existence of its own independent of the thought of the speaker, and *Subjective* for what exists (or is dealt with as existing) only in the thought of the speaker, we may say that the **Indicative** is the **Mood of Objective Predication**, and the **Subjunctive** the **Mood of Subjective Predication.**

The Indicative Mood, which relates to actual fact (or what is dealt with as such), must necessarily be simple in its application, because a fact external to our thought about it does not admit of being shaped in our thought as we please. But when an act or state is connected with something that we speak about *only in our thought*, the relation of the two may assume various forms. Consequently the Subjunctive Mood admits of a great variety of uses, especially in languages in which its forms are fully preserved. In modern English these uses have become very much restricted.§

In modern English the Subjunctive is employed to express a *will* or *wish*, as "Thy kingdom *come*"; in clauses denoting *purpose*, as

* It may be said that it is much easier to call 'Let us go' the first person plural imperative of the verb *go*, and so on. So it is. It is always easier to shirk a difficulty than to solve it. The objection to the easier course is that it is false. *Us* cannot be the subject of a *finite* verb, and *let* is not of the first person. (Compare the German 'Lasset uns beten.') A complex grammatical phrase has not been explained when its parts have been jumbled together into one lot, and ticketed with a wrong name.

† Many writers have actually forgotten what they are dealing with when they speak of the Subjunctive Mood. It is therefore necessary to insist upon the very obvious truth, that in all languages the Subjunctive Mood is not a particular *way of using verbs*, but a particular *group of verb-forms*. Such forms as *sum, est, amo, monebo, audivi*, &c., in Latin; *bin, hast, liebt, sprach*, &c., in German; *was, has, am, is*, &c., in English, belong to the Indicative group, and are *Indicative* whatever may be the construction in which they are found. Such forms as *sim, esset, amem, audiverim*, &c., in Latin; *sey, wäre, habest, spräche*, &c., in German; [*he*] *be*, [*I*] *were*, [*thou*] *have*, &c., in English, belong to the Subjunctive group. The Mood is constituted by the *verb-form*, and not by the use of a conjunction. There are, however, grammars still in use, the unfortunate learners of which are taught that '*If I am*' is the *Subjunctive Mood* of the verb *to be*.

‡ This definition has the sanction of the best grammatical authorities. It is well developed by Mätzner. Peile (*Primer of Phil.* p. 93) says: "In the Subjunctive Mood the action is not stated as a fact, though it may be one, but as a conception of the mind." Madvig (*Lat. Gram.* § 346) says:—"In the Conjunctive a thing is asserted simply as an idea conceived in the mind; so that the speaker does not at the same time declare it as actually existing."

§ In modern English it is getting (unfortunately) more and more common to use the Indicative Mood in cases where the Subjunctive would be more correct. Thus for "See that all be in readiness," many people say "See that all *is* in readiness;" for "If that *were* to happen," they say, "If that *was* to happen."

"See that all *be* in readiness"; "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee"; in clauses denoting the purport of a wish or command, as "The sentence is that the prisoner *be* imprisoned for life"; to express a supposition or wish contrary to the fact, or not regarded as brought to the test of actual fact, as "If he *were* here (which is not the case) he would think differently"; "Oh! that it *were* possible." In this last case the possibility of the thing is treated purely as a matter that is *merely thought of*.

Of course these varieties of signification are not actually *expressed* by the Subjunctive Mood. That Mood merely supplies us with a form of predication which can be shaped by our intelligence, according to circumstances, so as to suit the meaning to be conveyed.

In Anglo-Saxon the functions of the Subjunctive Mood were much wider than in modern English. It was used wherever we now use it, and it was also employed—

1. In indirect questions, as "ácsiað hwá sý wyrðe" = 'ask who is (*be*) worthy.'
2. In reported statements for which the reporter does not vouch, as "He sæde ðæt ðæt land *sie* swiðe lang norð" = 'he said that that land is (*be*) very far north.'
3. In putting a general case, or describing a type of a class, as "Hwæt is ðinga ðe bieterre sie"? = 'what of things is [there] which *be* more bitter?' "Se þe hæbbe eáran tó gehýranne gehýre" = 'He that hath (*have*) ears to hear, let him hear.'

The Subjunctive Mood cannot be used in a *simple* declarative or interrogative sentence. A predication made in thought only is meaningless, except as related to some other predication. Hence the mood was called the '*subjunctive*' or '*joining-on*' mood, because (except when expressing a wish) it is only employed in complex sentences.*

A verb in the Subjunctive Mood is generally (but not always) preceded by one of the conjunctions *if*, *that*, *lest*, *though*, *unless*, &c.; but the Subjunctive Mood is not always used after these conjunctions, nor is the conjunction a part of the mood.

In modern English the simple present or past tense of the Subjunctive Mood is often replaced by phrases compounded of the verbs *may*, *might*, and *should*, which for that reason are called *auxiliary* or *helping verbs*. Thus for "lest sin *surprise* thee," we now say "Lest sin *should surprise* thee"; for "Give me this water that I *thirst* not" we say "that I may † not thirst."

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* *Conjunctive* is a better name than *Subjunctive*, because the mood is not confined to use in a *subjoined* clause. But neither name is good, for neither name expresses in the slightest degree the real function of the mood, and both are misleading. *Conceptual* would be a better name. The learner must beware of the bad logic involved in supposing that because a verb in this mood is usually *conjoined* or *subjoined* to some other verb, therefore every clause that is subjoined to another contains a verb in the Subjunctive Mood. (See further in the Appendix to the 'Shorter English Grammar.')

† These auxiliary verbs form compound subjunctive tenses, not by virtue of their signification in the combination, but solely because they are themselves in the Subjunctive Mood. Their *notional* meaning has evaporated (§ 185), and only their mood-power remains to give modality to the compounds. This was long ago pointed out by Dr. Lowth in his English Grammar.

193. The three finite moods of verbs may be described as the **Mood of Fact** (Indicative), the **Mood of Conception** (Subjunctive), and the **Mood of Volition** (Imperative).

THE VERB AS A SUBSTANTIVE.

1.—THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

194. The **Infinitive Mood** expresses the action or state denoted by the verb without reference to person, number, or time. It cannot be attached to a subject to make an assertion, but it may be attached to a subject in dependent phrases, as "I saw *him fall*," "I know *him to be* honest," "No wonder is *a lewed man to ruste*" (Chaucer, *Prol.* 503). This use justifies us in calling it a 'Mood' (see definition). It commonly has the force of a substantive, and may be used either as the subject or as the object of another verb, or after certain prepositions (namely *to* and *but*), as "I cannot but *admire* his courage." When thus used it is not properly a mood at all.

195. The preposition *to* is not an essential part of the infinitive mood, nor an invariable sign of it. Many verbs (as *may, can, shall, will, must, let, dare, do, bid, make, see, hear, feel, need*) are followed by the simple infinitive without *to*,* as "You may *speak*"; "Bid me *discourse*"; "He made me *laugh*"; "I had rather not *tell* you."

> The simple infinitive (without *to*) used as the *subject* of another verb is legitimate, though somewhat archaic, as "Better *be* with the dead" (*Macbeth* iii. 2, 20); "Will't please your highness *walk*" (*Lear* iv. 7); "Better *dwell* in the midst of alarms than *reign* in this horrible place" (*Cowper*); "Him luste ryde soo" = 'it pleased him [to] ride so' (Chaucer, *Pro.* 102). So in Anglo-Saxon: "Leofre is ús *gefón* fisc"; "It is more agreeable to us to catch fish." This infinitive denotes purpose after verbs of motion, as "I will go *seek* the king" (*Hamlet* ii. 1, 101).

196. In Anglo-Saxon, the infinitive mood ended in *-an*, and when used as such, had no *to* before it. A verb in the infinitive might be the subject or object of another verb. The infinitive was, however, treated as a declinable abstract noun, and a dative form (called the *gerund*), ending in *-anne*, or *-enne*, and preceded by the preposition *to*, was used to denote *purpose*. Thus in "He that hath ears to hear," *to hear* = *tó gehýranne*; in "The sower went forth to sow," *to sow* = *tó sáwenne*. This gerundive infinitive passed into modern English with the loss of the dative inflexion, as in "I came *to tell* you"; "The water is good *to drink*," *i.e.*, *for drinking*; "This house is *to let*."† Here the *to* has

* Similarly *zu* is omitted after the corresponding verbs in German.

† The active infinitive in these phrases is the older and truer form. In Chaucer we find "it is *to despise*" = 'it is *to be despised*.' In the North they still say 'What is *to do?*' for "What is to be done?"

its full and proper force. From denoting the *purpose* of an action, the *to* came to mark the *ground* of an action more generally, and so may indicate the *cause* or *condition* of an action, as "I am sorry *to hear* this"; "I am glad *to see* you," *i.e.*, "*at seeing* you"; "*To hear* him talk (*i.e.*, *on hearing* him talk), one would suppose he was master here." But this gerund with *to* came to be used in place of the simple infinitive, as the subject or object of another verb,* and so we say, "*To err* is human, *to forgive* divine"; "I hope *to see* you." Here the *to* is utterly without meaning. We even find another preposition used before it, as "I was *about to observe*"; "This is Elias which was *for to come*" † "There is nothing left *but to submit*."

As this infinitive preceded by *to* ‡ has come to us from the Anglo-Saxon gerund, it is called the *gerundial infinitive*.

2.—THE GERUND.

197. A **Gerund** is a **substantive** formed from a verb by the suffix **-ing**, and which, when formed from a transitive verb, has the governing power of the verb, as, "He escaped by *crossing* the river." The Gerund is like the imperfect participle in form, but is totally distinct from it in origin and construction.

The gerunds of the verbs *have* and *be* help to form compound gerunds, as ".He went crazy through *having lost* his fortune"; "He is desirous of *being admired*."

198. Gerunds are used either as subjects or as objects of verbs, or after prepositions, as "Losing his fortune drove him mad"; "I like *reading*"; "He is fond of *studying* mathematics."

199. Participles (being adjectives) are never used as the subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions. It must be observed too that in all such compounds as *hiding-place*, *walking-stick*, &c., it is the gerund, and not the participle which is used. If made with the participle, a 'walking-stick' could only mean 'a stick that walks.'

200. The origin of the Gerund is a point about which there is some difference of opinion.

1. It is held by some that the Gerund in *-ing* is simply the modern representative of the Anglo-Saxon abstract noun in *-ung*. That these nouns in *-ung* are now represented by verbal nouns in *-ing* is quite true. Thus: "For earnunge écan líf[illegible]," 'for *earning* of eternal life' (*Grein*, ii. p. 286); "Thei

* Even in A.S. we find such constructions as "hyt is álȳfed wel tó dónne" ('it is allowed to do good'); "He ondrǽd þyder tó faranne" ('he dreaded to go thither'). It is interesting to observe that the older infinitive forms in Latin and Greek (τιθέμεναι, δόμεναι, &c.), and still more those in Sanskrit, show that the infinitive mood was *the dative case of an abstract noun*, used to express the object or purpose of an action.

† This infinitive with *for to* is even found as the subject or object of another verb, as "Unto a poure ordre *for to give* is signe that a man is wel ischrive" (Chaucer, *Prol.* 216); "Ye lerneth *for to lovye*" (*Piers Pl.* 14624); or with a subject, "This prison caused *me* not *for to crie*" (*Chaucer*).

‡ In the Northern dialect *at* was used instead of *to*, as "I hafe noght *at do* with the"; "That es *at say*." (*Koch*, ii. p. 61. Skeat, *Et. Dict.*) *Til* was also employed for *to*. In the phrase 'Much ado,' *ado* is *at do*. 'Much ado' = *much to do*.

weren at robbinge," 'they were a robbing' (*Layamon*); "On hunting ben they ridden," 'a hunting are they ridden'; "I fare to gon a begging" (*Chaucer*); "I go a fishing" (*John* xxi. 3); "Forty and six years was this temple in building"; "While the ark was a preparing" (*a=on* or *in*). Such phrases as "I am a doing of it," though now considered vulgar, are perfectly grammatical. It may have been the mere omission of the preposition which produced what looks like* a passive use of the participle in *-ing*, as 'the house is building.' Compare "Ge beoð on hatunge"='ye shall be hated" (*Matt.* x. 22).

The difficulty about this view is, that it furnishes no explanation of the origin of the compound gerunds (as 'he was punished for *having broken* the window'), and that the nouns in *-ung* never had the power of governing an objective case, as gerunds have. When we say "He was hanged for killing a man," the objective relation of 'man' to 'killing' is (now at any rate) as distinctly in our thoughts, as that of 'man' to 'killed' when we say "He killed a man." Consequently, even if it could be shown that the formation in *-ung* was the parent of *all* verbal nouns in *-ing*, a large class of these would still be entitled to be classed by themselves under a distinct name, just as adverbs that have acquired the force of prepositions require to be classed and named as such.

2. Koch (ii. § 98) regards the gerund in *-ing* as being descended from the old Anglo-Saxon gerund in *-anne* or *-enne*, which passed through such forms as 'to rixiende,' 'for to brennyng,' 'I am to accusinge you' (Wycliffe, *John* v. 45); and as having got confused with the descendants of the nouns in *-ung*, and so used without the preposition *to*. The objection to this is that the Anglo-Saxon gerund has its unquestionable representative in the modern gerundial infinitive (§ 196), and that throughout its history the 'to' stuck to it with great tenacity.

3. Mätzner's view is that the verbal noun in *-ung*, on getting assimilated in form to the participles in *-ing*, got so far confused with them as to assume their power of forming compounds (see above) and governing the objective case, being aided in this by the confusion in French between the gerund in *-ant* (Lat. *-andum* or *-endum*) and the participle in *-ant* (Lat. *-antem* or *-entem*). This is probably the correct view of the matter.† It is at least curious that the verbal noun in *-ing* occurs in the early writers (as Chaucer) most commonly after *in*, as the French gerund does after *en*.

Some grammars set down an *infinitive* in *-ing*, as a modification of the old infinitive in *-an* or *-en*. This is a perfectly needless invention, and is quite unwarranted by the history of the forms. (See Dr. Morris, *Hist. Outl.*) In "Seeing is believing" we have merely two *verbal nouns* in *-ing*, descendants of the older formation in *-ung*.

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* According to Dr. Murray, however (*Dial. of S. Counties*, &c., p. 225), we really have the participle in these phrases. In Scotch the phrase is "the hoose is *buildan'*" i.e., '*buildand*.' He considers this to be a relic of the Middle voice = *buildan' itsel'*. In colloquial English we often meet with such expressions as "I want a button *sewing* on," where the participle has a passive sense. (Comp. § 183.)

† It is a great mistake to speak of the gerund, or verbal substantive in *-ing*, as being 'the imperfect participle used as a noun.' The participle is an adjective, and though an adjective may be used as a *concrete* noun, it cannot possibly pass into an *abstract* noun without having the definite article before it. The grossness of the mistake which is involved in confounding the gerund with the participle is seen when beginners, who have been led astray by their English grammars, render 'He talks about fighting, by 'loquitur de pugnante.'

Those verbals in *-ing* which represent the old formation in *-ung* should properly be followed by *of* and not by the simple objective case, as "The hunting of the Snark": "To dissuade the people from making of league" (North. *Plut.*). This ought always to be the construction when the verbal is preceded by *the*, and is the present usage; but (owing to a confusion between the two verbals, the noun and the participle) the older writers did not always adhere to it. Thus we find: "Nothing in his life became him like *the leaving it*" (*Macbeth*); "The seeing these effects" (*Cymb.*).

THE VERB AS AN ADJECTIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

201. Participles are verbal adjectives. They are so called because they *partake* of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective (Latin *participare*, 'to partake').

There are two participles formed by inflexion, the **Imperfect Participle** and the **Perfect Participle.** The imperfect participle always ends in *ing.** When formed from a transitive verb, it may have an object, as "*Hearing the noise*, I went to the window." The perfect participle in verbs of the Strong Conjugation formerly always ended in *-en*, and still does so in many verbs; in verbs of the Weak Conjugation it ends in *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t*.† The Imperfect Participle is always *active*, the Perfect Participle is *passive*, provided the verb be a transitive verb; as, "I saw a boy *beating* a dog." "*Frightened* by the noise he ran away." In "He has come," *come* is perfect, but not passive.‡

Even in the perfect tenses, as "I *have written* a letter," the origin of the construction is, "I have a letter *written*," where *written* is an adjective agreeing with *letter*: in Latin, *Habeo epistolam scriptam.* In French the participle agrees with the object in some constructions; as "Les lettres que j'ai écrites." In Anglo-Saxon the perfect participle was inflected, and made to agree with the object.§

202. The participles are often used as mere adjectives of quality, as "A *striking* remark"; "The *dreaded* hour has come."

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* The termination of this participle in Anglo-Saxon was *-ende*, which was subsequently changed to *-inde*, and finally to *-inge*, *-ynge*, and *-ing*. In the Northern dialect the termination was *-ande* or *-and*, which still maintains its ground in Scotch. The essential letters of the suffix are *nd*. This suffix is akin to the Latin *-ent* or *-nt* and the Greek ovτ or evτ. We have now three totally different formations in *-ing*. 1. The abstract noun, as "Seeing is believing"; "He was aroused by the striking of the clock." 2. The Gerund (capable of governing an objective case), as "He made a noise by striking the gong." 3. The participle (an *adjective* attached to a substantive), as "I saw a boy striking a dog."

† The letter *y*, which is found as a prefix in one or two old forms (as *yclept* 'called') and affected by some writers in others, is derived from the A.S. prefix *ge*. At first, and for some time, the Northern dialect, while dropping the prefix *ge*, retained the suffix *-en*. The Southern dialect discarded the suffix, but retained the *ge*.

‡ Even the past participle of transitive verbs is often used with a curious *active* signification, as "You *are mistaken*," i.e. "You *have mistaken* [the matter]"; "Why *are you drawn?*" (*Tempest*, ii. 1), i.e. "Why *have you drawn* [your words]."

§ As "He hæfð man geweorhtne," 'he has created man."

TENSE.

203. Tenses (Latin *tempus*, 'time') are varieties of form in verbs, or compound verbal phrases made with the help of auxiliary verbs, which indicate partly the **time** to which an action or event is referred * and partly the **completeness** or **incompleteness** of the event at the time referred to.

204. There are three divisions of time—the Present, the Past, and the Future. There are also three ways in which an action or event may be viewed :—

1. It may be spoken of as **incomplete,** or still going on. A tense which indicates this is called an **imperfect tense.**

2. It may be spoken of as **complete.** A tense which indicates this is called a **perfect tense.**

3. It may be spoken of as one whole, without describing it as complete or incomplete in relation to other actions. A tense which does this is called an **indefinite tense.**

205. An action may be viewed in these three ways with reference to past, to present, or to future time. We thus get

NINE PRIMARY TENSES.

A.
1. The **Past Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain past time an action was going on, as, *I was writing; I was being taught.*
2. The **Past Perfect,** showing that at a certain past time an action was complete ; as, *I had written ; I had been taught.*
3. The **Past Indefinite** (or **Preterite**), speaking of the action as one whole referred to past time ; as, *I wrote ; I was taught.*

B.
1. The **Present Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that an action is going on at the present time ; as, *I am writing ; I am being taught.*
2. The **Present Perfect,** showing that at the present time a certain action is complete ; as, *I have written ; I have been taught.*
3. The **Present Indefinite,** speaking of the action as one whole, referred to present time ; as, *I write ; I am taught.*

C.
1. The **Future Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain future time an action will be going on ; as, *I shall be writing ; I shall be being taught.*
2. The **Future Perfect,** showing that at a certain future time an action will be complete ; as, *I shall have written ; I shall have been taught.*
3. The **Future Indefinite,** speaking of an action as one whole, referred to future time ; as, *I shall write ; I shall be taught.*

* The marking of time is so essential a characteristic of verbs, that some grammarians make it the ground of the definition of a verb. In German the verb is called 'Zeitwort,' i.e. 'Time-word.'

206. From this table it appears at once that *perfect* and *past* are not the same. When we say "*I have written*," although the act of writing took place in past time, yet the *completeness* of the action (which is what the tense indicates) is referred to *present time*. Hence the tense is a *present* tense. The use of this tense implies that the state of things brought about by the action exists at the present time. We may say "England has founded a mighty empire in the East," because the empire still lasts; but we cannot say "Cromwell has founded a dynasty," because the dynasty exists no longer.

207. The *indefinite* tenses are often *imperfect* in sense. Thus, "I *stood* during the whole of the performance." "While he *lived* at home he was happy." The verbs in such cases would have to be rendered into the past *imperfect* tense in French, Latin, or Greek (see § 216).

SECONDARY TENSES.

208. Besides the primary tenses, we have the following * :—

The **Present Perfect of continued action**—I *have been writing*.
The **Past Perfect of continued action**—I *had been writing*.
The **Future Perfect of continued action**—I *shall have been writing*.

COMPLEX FORMS OF INDEFINITE TENSES.

209. The Present and Past Indefinite Tenses are often replaced by compound forms † made with the auxiliary verb *do*, thus :—

"You do assist the storm" (Shakspeare, *Temp.* i. 1, 15).
"They set bread before him and he did eat" (2 *Sam.* xii. 20).

These forms become emphatic when a stress is laid upon the auxiliary verb. They are commonly employed in negative and interrogative sentences.

FORMATION OF TENSES IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

210. The **Present Indefinite** and the **Past Indefinite** in the Active Voice are the only two tenses formed by **inflexion.**

The **Imperfect** tenses are formed by the indefinite tenses of the verb *be*, followed by the imperfect participle.‡

The **Perfect** tenses are formed by means of the indefinite tenses of the verb *have*, followed by the perfect participle. (See again § 185 and § 201.)

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* It is very absurd to give the name of 'tenses' to such phrases as 'I am going to write.' It would be as rational to extend the name to "I am on the point of writing," or, "He is in the very act of writing."

† In Chaucer's time *gan* was used as a mere tense-auxiliary, equivalent to *did*. Thus "He gan conclude" (*M. of L. Prol.* 14).

‡ The view that these tenses originated in the use of the verbal *nouns* in *-ing*, so that "I am writing" was developed out of 'I am a writing,' is incorrect. The participle in *-ende*, *-and*, *-yng*, or *-ing* with the verb *be* is found from the earliest period, side by side with the use of the verbal noun in *-ung* or *-ing*; as "Hig wæron etende and drincende" 'they were eating and drinking' (*Matt.* xxiv. 28); "Harold was comand" (*P. Langtoft*); "Ther hope I that thay be dwelland" (*Townl. Myst.* p. 278). Even in Gothic we get "Skulans sijaima," 'we are owing' = 'we owe' (*Matt.* vi. 12).

The **Future** tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mood; *shall* being used for the first person, *will* for the second and third in affirmative principal sentences; but in subordinate clauses, after a relative, or such words as *if*, *when*, *as*, *though*, *unless*, *until*, &c., the verb *shall* is used for all three persons; as, "If it *shall* be proved"; "When He shall appear we shall be like Him."

211. When the verb *will* is used in the first person and the verb *shall* in the second and third, it is implied that the action spoken of depends upon the will of *the speaker*. *Shall* (like *sollen* in German) implies an *obligation* to do something. Hence *shall* is appropriately used in commands (as "Thou shalt not kill"), in promises or threats (as "You shall have a holiday"), and in the language of prophecy, which is an utterance of the Divine will or purpose. *Shall* is used in the first person, as a simple auxiliary of a future tense, on much the same principle as that on which a person subscribes himself at the end of a letter, "Your obedient humble servant." It implies a sort of polite acknowledgment of being bound by the will of others, or at least by the force of circumstances. By a converse application of the same principle, the verb *will* is used in the second and third persons to imply that the action referred to depends upon the *volition* of the person to or of whom we speak. In questions, however, and in reported speeches the force of the verb *shall* is the same in the second and third persons as it would be in the answer, or as it was in the direct speech: "*Shall* you be present?" "I *shall*." "I *shall* not set out to-morrow"; "John said that he *should* not set out to-morrow." The verb to be used in a question depends upon the verb expected in the reply. We say, "Will you go?" if we expect the answer, "I will."

212. When *shall* and *will* are used as mere tense-signs, their notional force disappears. (See § 185.) When they are used with their full notional power (as in 'Thou *shalt* not kill'; 'I *will* have obedience,' i.e., 'I *am resolved* on *having* obedience') we no longer get a future tense, but a combination of a verb of incomplete predication and its complement. (See Syntax, *Complex Predicate*.) All depends upon whether the verb 'shall' or 'will' is used to predict or not. If it is, we get a future tense, but not otherwise. Thus, "Thou shalt not steal" involves no prediction; we may speak thus to one whom we know to be about to commit a theft. We assert a present obligation, we do not predict a future act. Consequently in this sentence we have not got a future tense.

213. There are sentences, however, in which 'shall' and 'will,' while used to *predict*, and therefore forming future tenses, retain something of their notional force, as "I will call upon you to-morrow"; "You shall have an answer on Monday." In all such instances the action referred to depends upon the will of the speaker.

The two sorts of future have been conveniently distinguished (by Dr. Latham) as the Predictive Future and the Promissive Future. In the Promissive Future 'will' is used for the First Person, and 'shall' for the Second and Third.

FORMATION OF TENSES IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

214. All moods and tenses in the Passive Voice are made by means of auxiliary verbs, the Passive Voice of a verb consisting of its perfect participle, preceded by the various moods and tenses of the verb *be.* (See § 188 and the note.)

215. *Comparative Table of Tenses in English, Latin, Greek, French and German.*

ACTIVE VOICE.—INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
Present.					
Indef.	He writes	scribit	γράφει	il écrit	er schreibt
Imperf.	He is writing	scribit	γράφει	il écrit	er schreibt
Perfect.	He has written	scripsit	γέγραφε	il a écrit	er hat geschrieben
Past.					
Indef.	He wrote	scripsit	ἔγραψε	il écrivit	er schrieb
Imperf.	He was writing	scribebat	ἔγραφε	il écrivait	er schrieb
Perfect.	He had written	scripserat	ἐγεγράφει	il avait écrit / il eut écrit	er hatte geschrieben
Future.					
Indef.	He will write	scribet	γράψει	il écrira	er wird schreiben
Imperf.	He will be writing	scribet	γράψει	il écrira	er wird schreiben
Perfect.	He will have written	scripserit	..	il aura écrit	er wird geschrieben haben
Perfect of continued action.	He has been writing, &c.	..	..	.. ..	.. ..

PASSIVE VOICE.—INDICATIVE MOOD.

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	German.
Present.					
Indef.	It is written	scribitur	γράφεται	il est écrit	es wird geschrieben
Imperf.	It is being written	scribitur	γράφεται	.. ..	es wird geschrieben
Perfect.	It has been written	scriptum est / scriptum fuit	γέγραπται	il a été écrit	es ist geschrieben worden
Past.					
Indef.	It was written	scriptum est / scriptum fuit	ἐγράφθη	il fut écrit	es wurde geschrieben
Imperf.	It was being written	scribebatur	ἐγράφετο	.. ..	es wurde geschrieben
Perfect.	It had been written	scriptum erat / scriptum fuerat	ἐγέγραπτο	il avait été écrit / il eut été écrit	es war geschrieben worden
Future.					
Indef.	It will be written	scribetur	γραφθήσεται	il sera écrit	es wird geschrieben werden
Imperf.	It will be being written	scribetur	γράψεται	.. ..	es wird geschrieben werden
Perfect.	It will have been written	scriptum erit	γεγράψεται	il aura été écrit	es wird geschrieben . worden-seyn

USE OF THE TENSES.

216. The **Present Indefinite** Tense is used:

1. To state what is actually taking place, as, "Here *comes* the rain."
2. To state what frequently or habitually takes place, or is universally true, as, "It *rains* here daily;" "Honesty *is* the best policy."
3. In lively narrations a person often imagines himself to be present at the events he is describing, and so uses the present tense (*Historic Present*) in speaking of past events.
4. It is used for the future when the real time is fixed by the context, as, "We *start* next Monday for the Continent."

Besides its ordinary use, the Past Indefinite Tense is used:

1. With the force of an Imperfect, as, "They *danced* while I *played*."
2. To express what happened frequently or habitually, as, "In those days people *ate* without forks."

The combinations which form the Indefinite Tenses of the Passive Voice are a little ambiguous in meaning. They may refer either to the *action* indicated by the verb, or to the *results* of the action. In the latter case they are not strictly *tenses* of the passive voice, but the participle that follows the verb *be* is used as an adjective. In "Every house is built by some man," *is built* is a present indefinite tense passive of the verb *build*. In "This house is built of stone," *is* is the verb, and *built* is used as an adjective.*

TENSES IN ANGLO-SAXON.

217. In Anglo-Saxon the Present Indefinite tense was also used as a Present Imperfect tense, and also as a Future † or even as a Future Perfect.

The Past Indefinite was also used as a Past Imperfect, as a Present Perfect ‡ and as a Past Perfect. Compounds of the verb 'have' and the perfect participle were also used, but the participle agreed in case, &c., with the object.

Combinations of the verb *be* with an imperfect participle are found.

The greater precision of modern English in marking tense arises from its having become more of an analytic and less of an inflected language. Auxiliary verbs and prepositions are more exact than inflexions.

NUMBER.

218. Number is a modification of the form of a verb, by means of which we show whether the verb is spoken of one person or

* This distinction can be easily marked in Greek, Latin, and in German. "The letter is written," i.e., 'the act of writing takes place,' is rendered "ἡ ἐπιστολὴ γράφεται," "Epistola scribitur," and "Der Brief wird geschrieben." "The letter is written," i.e., 'is in a written state, *or* has already been written,' is rendered by "ἡ ἐπιστολὴ γεγραμμένη ἐστι," 'Epistola scripta est," and 'Der Brief ist geschrieben."

† Thus: "Aefter þrim dagon ic arise," '*After three days I shall rise again*' (*Matt.* xxvii. 63); "Aelc treow . . . . byð forcorfen," '*Every tree . . . . shall be cut down*' (*Matt.* iii. 10), but the compounds with *shall* and *will* were also used.

‡ The past indefinite often served for the modern past indefinite, present perfect, and past perfect, *e.g.*, "mine eâgan gesâwon þîne hæle," 'mine eyes *have seen* thy salvation' (*Luke* ii. 30).

thing, or of more than one. There are, therefore, two numbers in verbs, the **Singular** and the **Plural**, corresponding to the two numbers in substantives.

PERSON.

219. Person * is a modification of the form of verbs, by which we indicate whether the speaker speaks of himself, or of the person or persons addressed, or of some other person or thing.

There are three persons—**1. The First Person; 2. The Second Person; 3. The Third Person.**

The **First Person** is used when the speaker speaks of himself either singly or with others.

The **Second Person** is used when the subject of the verb stands for the person or persons spoken to.

The **Third Person** is used when the subject of the verb denotes neither the speaker nor the person spoken to.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

220. The Conjugation of a Verb is the formation of all the inflexions and combinations used to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

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* The suffixes by which Person is marked were originally Personal Pronouns. The oldest forms to which they can be traced are (in the singular)—1. *ma*; 2. *tva*; 3. *ta*. These were weakened to—1. *mi*; 2. *ti*; 3. *ti*, the second being still further weakened to *si*. The plural forms for the first and second persons were either—1. *mas*, 2. *tas*, or 1. *masi*, 2. *tasi*. In the former case *-as* would be a plural sign added to the pronoun; in the latter *masi* = *I* + *thou* (= *we*); *ta-si* = thou + thou (= *ye*). The suffix of the third person was *an-ti*, made up of the root of *ana -s* (*that*), and *ti* = *ta* (*he*), and equivalent to *he* + *he* = *they* (*Koch*, i. p. 322). This suffix appears in the Latin 'ama *-nt*,' &c., and the Greek τύπτονται, &c.

The characteristic letter of the First Person (*-m*) is seen in *am* (= *as -m*) and *beom*, in the Latin *sum*, *inquam*, *amem*, &c., and the Greek εἰμι, &c. The characteristic letter of the Second Person (*-s*) is seen in Latin and Greek, in Gothic and in the Northern dialect of English ('thou hopes,' 'thou bindes,' &c.). The *-t* in *-st* is an offgrowth of the *-s* (compare *whilst*, &c.). In some verbs the original *t* re-appears, as a hardened form of the *-s* (*shalt*, *wilt*, *art*). The suffix *-th* is a modification of *-t*. It was first modified into *-s* in the Northern dialect.

The suffix *-anti*, which properly belongs to the Third Person, was adopted in primitive English for all three persons of the plural, its original sense having been lost sight of. (In the first instance it was, of course, as much a piece of bad grammar as it would be now to say 'I does,' 'Thou does,' 'He does,' in the singular.) The Northern dialect dropped the *n*, and softened the *t* to *s*, giving such forms as 'we hopes,' &c. The Southern dialect also dropped the *n*, but softened the *t* to *th*, giving such forms as 'we hopeth,' &c. The Midland dialect dropped the *t* and retained the *n*, giving the forms 'we hopen,' &c.

Mr. Garnett (*Phil. Essays*, pp. 289-342) gives cogent reasons for considering these pronominal suffixes to be not nominatives, but *oblique cases* (genitives or ablatives), combined with an abstract verbal substantive, so that *asmi*, *esmi*, *sum*, or *am* would mean not 'I am,' but 'being of me'; *docetis* would mean 'teaching of (or by) you,' &c. He shows that this is the actual mode of formation in a great variety of languages, spoken in all parts of the world, which proves that it is a possible and natural mode of expressing predication in the infancy of languages. Its possibility in the Aryan class is proved by its existence in Celtic.

In English and other Teutonic languages the plural suffixes have been assimilated to each other or dropped. In early English it is common to find the personal pronoun blended with the verb, as 'schaltou' = *shalt thou*; 'maystou' = *mayest thou*; 'So theech' = *so thee ich* (*so prosper I*). It is a mistake to treat these as a recurrence to the primitive formation. They are mere phonetic abbreviations. In *maystou*, *hastou*, &c., the verb has its ***pronominal suffix*** in the *s*, before the other pronoun is pronounced along with it.

There are two classes of verbs in English, distinguished by the formation of the Preterite. These are—

A. Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.
B. Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

221. The preterite of verbs of the Strong Conjugation is formed by modifying the vowel-sound of the root.

The Strong Conjugation is based upon a mode of forming the preterite which belongs to various members of the Aryan family of languages. In the Strong Conjugation the Preterite (or Past Indefinite Tense) was originally formed by *reduplication*, i.e. by repeating the root of the verb. This formation was weakened (1) by omitting the final consonant from the first member of the doubled root;* (2) by weakening the vowel sound of the initial syllable to one uniform letter, and frequently by weakening or modifying the vowel sound of the second root as well;† (3) by omitting the initial consonant of the second member of the doubled root, so that the vowel of reduplication and the vowel of the root came in contact with each other, and were commonly blended into one ‡ sound. Thus it has come to pass that in English (with two exceptions), **the preterite of verbs of the Strong Conjugation is formed by modifying the vowel sound of the root.**

Two preterites in English distinctly show reduplication, namely, *did* from *do*, and *hight* (was called) from the old verb *hâtan*, where *gh* is a variety of the guttural *h* at the beginning.§

In English the perfect participle of all verbs of the strong conjugation was originally formed by the (adjective) suffix *-en* and the prefixed particle *ge*. The suffix *-en* has now disappeared from many verbs, and the prefix *ge* from all.

This Conjugation contains no verbs but such as are of the old Teutonic stock of the language. If we disregard an occasional prefix the verbs that belong to it are all monosyllabic.

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* In Sanscrit perfect tenses are formed thus, just as in Latin, from *tud* (the root of *tundo*) we get *tu-tud-i*; from *mord*, *mo-mord-i*; from *dic* (the root of *disco*) *di-dic-i*.

† In Greek the initial consonant is repeated, but with the vowel sound weakened to ε (as δέ-δω-κα). This formation occurs in several verbs in Latin, as *pe-pul-i* (from *pello*); *pe-pig-i* (from *pango*); *ce-cid-i* (from *cado*). In Gothic the reduplication consisted of the initial consonant followed by *ai*, as *haitan* (to call), *hai-hait*. In Anglo-Saxon the reduplication once consisted of the first consonant followed by *eo*. (*Koch*, i. p. 240.)

‡ Thus in old Frisian the preterite from the root *hald* passed through the stages *ha-hald*, *ha-hild*, *ha-ild*, to *héld*. In Latin the root *lĕg* (in *lego*) passed through the stages *le-leg-i*, *lĕ-ĕg-i*, to *lēgi*; the root *vĕn* (in *venio*) through *vĕ-vĕn-i*, *vĕ-ĕn-i*, to *vēni*; the root *fac* through *fe-fic-i*, *fĕ-ic-i*, to *fēci*.

It is obvious that the changes described tended to result in giving a fuller and broader sound to the vowel of the root.

§ In Gothic the preterite is *haihait*. A few other Anglo-Saxon preterites show reduplication, especially when compared with Gothic. Thus *rêdan* (to advise), pret. *reord*, shortened from *reo-rêd* (Gothic *rêdan*, *rairoth*); *lætan* (to let), pret. *leort* (for *leolt*), shortened from *leolêt* (Gothic *lêtan*, *lailot*); *lâcan* (to leap); pret. *leolc*, shortened from *leo-lâc* (Gothic *laikan*, *lailaik*); *on-drêdan* (to dread), pret. *on-dreord*, shortened from *on-dreo-drêd*.

THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

222. The preterite of verbs of the Weak Conjugation is formed by adding *-ed* **or** *-t* **to the stem,** *e* final (if there is one) being omitted, as **wait-ed, lov-ed, deal-t.**

The suffix *-ed* is pronounced as a separate syllable only after a dental mute, as in *need-ed, pat-t-ed, mend-ed.* The vowel *y* after a consonant is changed into *i* before it, as *pity, pitied.* After a sharp guttural or labial mute *ed* has the sound of *t*, as in *tipped, knocked.* In several verbs the suffix has vanished, though its previous existence is sometimes seen either in the weakening of the vowel of the stem, or in the change of final *d* into *t*, as *meet, met; bend, bent.*

223. This suffix is in reality a preterite form * of the verb *do*, which was shortened in Anglo-Saxon into *-de* or *-te.* The suffix *-de* was attached to the root by the connecting vowel *o* or *e*, which, however, disappeared after some consonants. In modern English *-de* has become *-d*, and the connecting vowel is always *-e*, as in *mend-e-d.* This vowel is omitted before *-t*, as it was in A.S. before *-te.*

It thus appears that in origin as well as in meaning, *I loved* is equivalent to *I love did*, or *I did love;* so that this preterite tense is in reality formed by means of an auxiliary verb.†

224. The perfect participle of most verbs of the weak conjugation is the same in form as the preterite. It had its origin in an adjective suffix *-d* or *-t*, akin to *-tus* in Latin. The prefix *ge* has been dropped.

This conjugation contains many verbs of the old Teutonic stock of English; some verbs once of the Strong Conjugation; all verbs of Norman, French, or foreign origin; and all fresh formations.

225.—A. VERBS OF THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

[Words in italics are obsolete forms.]

1. *Verbs in which the preterite is formed by vowel-change, and the perfect participle has the suffix* -en *or* -n.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
blow	blew	blown
crow	crew	crowed [*crown*]
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
mow	mowed [*mew*]	mown
draw	drew	drawn

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
hold	held	holden, held
fall	fell	fallen
lie	lay	lien, lain
slay	slew	slain
see	saw	seen
eat‡	ate	eaten
beat	beat §	beaten

* In Gothic the reduplicated auxiliary root (*ded*) appears in the dual and plural of the preterite indicative, and in all three numbers of the past subjunctive (Skeat, *Moeso-Gothic Glossary and Grammar*, p. 301).

† Since the auxiliary suffix of the Weak Conjugation is a reduplicated or *strong* form, it follows that the Strong Conjugation is the older of the two. Whenever fresh verbs are formed or introduced, they are of the weak conjugation.

‡ The verb *fret* is a compound of *eat* (*for -eat* = 'eat away'; Germ. *veressen, fressen*).

§ A weak preterite *bette* or *bet* is found in old writers.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
drive	drove, drave	driven	stride	strode	stridden
ride	rode	ridden	strive	strove	striven
rise	rose	risen	thrive	throve	thriven
smite	smote	smitten	write	wrote	written, writ
chide	chid [*chode*]*	chidden, chid	bite	bit	bitten, bit
slide	slid [*slode*]	slidden, slid			

bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid	spit	spat, spit	spit [*spitten*]
give	gave	given			

forsake	forsook	forsaken†	stave	stove, staved	(staved)
shake	shook	shaken†	come	came	come [*comen*]
take	took	taken†			

2. *In most of the following verbs there is a tendency to assimilate the vowel-sound of the preterite to that of the perfect participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bear	bare, bore	borne,‡ born	tear	tare, tore	torn
break	brake, broke	broken†	wear	wore	worn
shear§	shore	shorn	weave	wove	woven
speak	spake, spoke	spoken †	climb §	clomb [*clomben*]	
steal	stole	stolen	fight	fought	fought
swear	sware, swore	sworn	hang‖	hung [*heng*]	hung

3. *Verbs in which the vowel of the perfect participle has been assimilated to that of the preterite, or the preterite has been adopted as a participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
abide¶	abode	abode	tread	trod	trodden, trod
shine	shone	shone	sit	sate, sat	sat [*seten*]
awake**	awoke	awoke	get	got, gat	gotten, got
stand	stood	stood			

4. *In most of the following verbs the preterite in A.S. had* a *in the singular and* u *in the plural. Hence probably came the twofold forms of the preterite. The perfect participle has usually lost its suffix. In these verbs the* i *of the present tense, and the* u *of the perfect participle are weakenings of the root vowel* a.

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* "Jacob *chode* with Laban" (*Gen.* xxxi. 36). *Chid* (= *chidde*) is of the weak form.

† *Took, forsook, shook, rode, broke, spoke,* are used as participles by Shakspeare.

‡ *Born* is now used only with reference to *birth*. *Borne* means *carried*.

§ Also of the Weak Conjugation.

‖ There is also a transitive verb *hang* of the Weak Conjugation, which has got mixed up with the Strong intransitive verb. Chaucer uses *heng* as transitive.

¶ In the phrase "Some shall dear *abide* it" (Sh. *Jul. Caes.* iii. 2, 119), 'abide' is probably a mistake for the old verb *abie* or *abye* (in old English *abiggen*, pret. *aboght*), derived from *bycgan* = 'to buy,' and means "Some shall pay dear for it."

** Also weak, *awake, awaked*. This verb (A.S. *aweccan*) is properly intransitive; the transitive verb ought to be weak (A.S. *awacian*). The forms have got mixed.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
begin	began, begun*	begun
drink	drank, drunk*	drunken† drunk
ring	rang, rung *	rung
sing	sang, sung *	sung
sink	sank, sunk *	sunken,† sunk
spin	span, spun	spun

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunken† shrunk
spring	sprang, sprung*	sprung
stink	stank, stunk	stunk
strike	strake, struck	stricken,† struck
swim	swam, swum*	swum

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bind	bound	bound
find	found	found
grind	ground	ground
cling	clung	clung
fling	flung	flung
hide	hid	hidden, hid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
stick	stuck	stuck
string	strung	strung
swing	swung	swung
win	won [*wan*]	won
wind	wound ‡	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
run §	ran	run
burst §	burst	burst

5. *These verbs in A.S. had the following vowels :—*

Pres. eo ; *Pret.* Sing. ea ; *Pl.* u ; *P. Part.* o.

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
freeze	froze	frozen
choose	chose	chosen
cleave‖	clave	cloven
fly	flew	flown

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
heave‖	hove	hoven
seethe	sod	sodden, sod
shoot	shot	shot [*shotten*]

6. *Verbs not included in the preceding classes.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
dig‖	dug	dug
(be)queath ¶	quoth	

B.—VERBS OF THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

226. Besides the large class of what are frequently called Regular Verbs, because the preterite and perfect participle are uniformly made by the simple addition of *-ed*, which includes all verbs of French or Latin origin, the following verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation :—

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* These forms are now usually avoided by the best writers. It may be that the preterite with *u* is simply the past participle adopted as a preterite, as in the vulgar idioms "I seen him," "He done it." This idiom is common in the Slavonic languages (Latham, *Introd. Phil.* p. 58). The abbreviated participles *driv*, *smit*, *rid*, *writ* were used as preterites in the sixteenth century.

† These forms are now used only as adjectives.

‡ It is a mistake to make *wound* the preterite of *wind* = 'sound with the breath.' That verb is only a modern adaptation of a noun, and ought to be of the weak conjugation.

§ In these verbs the vowel of the present has been assimilated to that of the perfect participle. In A.S. the forms were *yrnan* and *berstan*. Compare the Scotch *rin*.

‖ Also weak, *cleave*, *cleft*, *cleft* ; *heave*, *heaved*, *heaved* ; *dig*, *digged*, *digged*.

¶ The simple verb *queath* (*cweðan*) is no longer used. To *bequeath* is 'to allot a thing by speaking.' In A.S. the plural of the preterite had *d* instead of ð in the plural ; hence the form *quod*, used by Chaucer.

1. *Verbs in which the addition of the suffix* d *or* t *is accompanied by a shortening of the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bereave	bereft	bereft, bereaved	kneel	knelt	knelt
creep	crept*	crept*	leave	left	left
deal	dealt	dealt	lose	lost	lost †
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt	mean	meant	meant
feel	felt	felt	sleep	slept*	slept
flee	fled	fled	sweep	swept	swept
hear	heard	heard	weep	wept*	wept
keep	kept *	kept	shoe	shod	shod

2. *Verbs in which the suffix has been dropped ‡ after the shortening of the vowel.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bleed	bled	bled	read	read	read
breed	bred	bred	speed	sped	sped
feed	fed	fed	hide	hid	hidden, hid
lead	led	led	light §	lit	lit
meet	met	met	betide	betid	betid

3. *Verbs in which the addition of* d *or* t *is accompanied by a change in the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
beseech ‖	besought	besought	seek	sought	sought
buy	bought	bought	teach	taught	taught
catch ¶	caught	caught	think **	thought	thought
bring **	brought	brought	tell	told	told
sell	sold	sold	work	wrought	wrought

4. *Verbs in which the suffix* te *has disappeared, but has changed a final flat mute into a sharp mute.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bend	bent	bent††	rend	rent	rent
blend	blended	blent	send	sent	sent
gild	gilt, gilded	gilt, gilded	shend	shent	shent ‡‡
gird	girt, girded	girt, girded	spend	spent	spent
lend	lent	lent	wend	went, wended	wended
build	built	built, builded			

* In early writers we find *crep* for *crepte*, *slep* for *slepte*, *wep* for *wepte*.

† In Anglo-Saxon (*for*)*losen* was softened into (*for*)*loren*, which is still preserved in *lorn* and *forlorn*. In a similar way *frore* is found for *frozen*. "The parching air burns *frore*" (*Par. Lost*, ii. 595). In A.S. the verb was leósan, leás-luron, loren, of the Strong Conjugation.

‡ In early English we find the preterites *bledde*, *bredde*, *fedde*, *ladde*, *mette*, &c.

§ From the A.S. *leohtan*. The verb *light* or *alight*, 'to come down gently,' is from *lihtan* (*liht* = German *leicht*). The two verbs, however, have been confounded, and the forms *lighted* and *lit* are used indifferently.

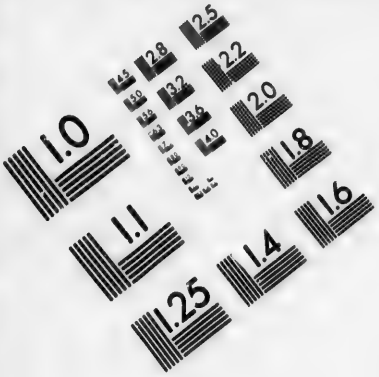
‖ *Beseech* is a compound of *seek*: *k*, *ch*, and *gh* are only varieties of the guttural sound.

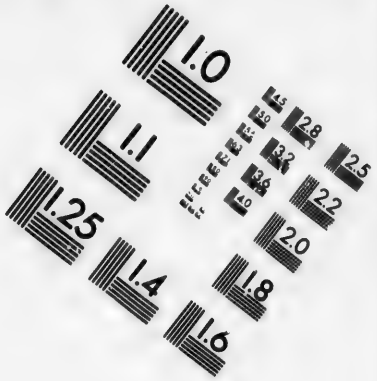
¶ The *t* is not radical. It is only used to indicate that *ch* has the sibilant sound. Chaucer uses *raughte* and *straughte* for *reached* and *stretched* (*Kn. T.* 2058). So also *faught* = *fetched*, *pight* = *pitched*, *snaught* = *snatched*. *Straight* is another form of *stretched*.

** The *n* in these verbs is not radical.

†† *Bended* became *bent*, just as in Chaucer *standeth* becomes *stant*; *rydeth*, *ryt*, &c.

‡‡ *Shend* (German *schänden*) is used by Shakspeare. It means 'put to the blush.'





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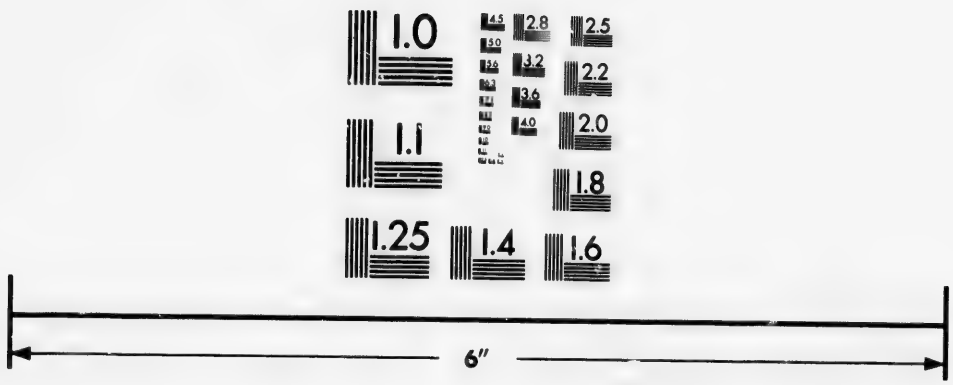

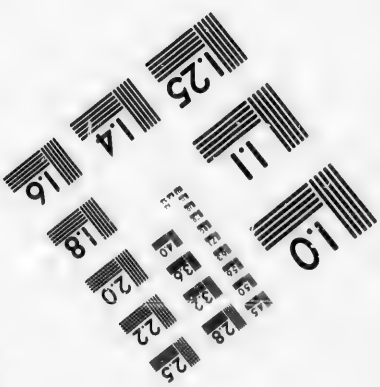

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5. *Verbs in which the suffix has disappeared* without further change.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
cast	cast	cast	set	set	set
cost	cost	cost	shed	shed	shed
cut	cut	cut	shred	shred	shred
hit	hit	hit	shut	shut	shut
hurt	hurt	hurt	slit	slit	slit
knit	knit	knit	split	split	split
let†	let	let	spread	spread	spread
put	put	put	thrust	thrust	thrust
rid	rid	rid			

6. *Verbs with the* -en *of the strong conjugation in the perfect participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
go	———	gone	shave	shaved	shaven, shaved
grave	graved	graven, graved	shew, show	shewed, showed	shewn, shown, shewed, showed
help	helped	holpen, helped			
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed	shrive	shrived	shriven
lade	laded	laden	sow	sowed	sown, sowed
melt	melted	molten, melted	strew	strewed	strewn, strown, strewed
mow	mowed	mown, mowed			
rive	rived	riven, rived	swell	swelled	swollen, swelled
saw	sawed	sawn, sawed	wash	washed	washen, washed
shape	shaped	shapen, shaped	wax	waxed	waxen, waxed

7. *Verbs not included in the preceding classes.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
clothe	clad‡	clad	lay§	laid	laid
freight	freighted	fraught, freighted	say§	said	said
work	wrought, worked	wrought, worked	have	had (*i.e.* haved)	had
			make	made (*i.e.* maked)	made

8. *Tight* is a participle of *tie* (A.S. *tigan*). *Distraught* is an exceptional form from the verb *distract*. *Straight* is for *stretched*. *Dight* (shortened from *dighted*) is from A.S. *dihtan* = 'to adorn.' *Yclept* is from the old verb *clypian* = to call. *Go* borrows a preterite from the verb *wend*, properly *to wend* (*or turn*) *one's way*.‖ *Went* was formerly a participle as well as a preterite tense. ("Is went" occurs in Chaucer, *Pr. T.* 1730.) The form *yede* (A.S. eóde) = 'went' used by Chaucer, is from the root *i* = 'go.'

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* In these verbs, however, the second person singular of the preterite is made in full, *castedst*, *thrustedst*, &c.

† In old English the verb *let* ('allow' or 'leave alone') was a Strong Verb (A.S. *lætan*). The strong preterite *leet* is used by Chaucer. The past participle was *laten*, *leten*, or *lete*. From this came the adjective *late* (A.S. *læt*), meaning 'left alone' or 'left behind,' 'coming after the rest.' From this was made the causative verb *let* (A.S. *lettan*) = 'to make late,' 'to hinder.' Of this Chaucer uses the (weak) preterite *letted*. The two verbs were distinct enough in Chaucer's time (as "Sche *leet* no morsel from her lippes falle," *Prol.* 128; "He letted nat his felawe for to see," i.e. 'he hindered not his companion from seeing,' *Kn. T.* 1034), but are confounded in modern English. The meaning 'leave' which the strong verb had (*e.g.* "He *leet* (= *left*) his scheep encombred in the myre," *Prol.* 508) is still seen in '*Let* me alone,' &c. *Let* had also the stronger meaning of 'make' or 'cause,' as "This proude king *leet* make a statue of gold" (*Monkes T.* 3349).

‡ *Clad* is a shortened form of *cladde*, A.S. *claðode*.

§ The *y* in these verbs is a weakened form of the double guttural *cg*.

‖ *Ago* is a shortened form of *agone*.

From the old verb *won* *= 'to abide' *or* 'be accustomed' comes the preterite "I wont" = *I was accustomed*, and the present perfect "I am wont" (made like 'I am come'). The participle *wont* was turned into a noun (= custom), and from this noun is formed the adjective (not participle) *wonted*.

Fraught is a shortened form of *fraughted* from *fraught* (Dutch *vrachten*) a variety of *freight*. "If thou *fraught*" is found in Shakspeare (*Cymb.*).

9. *The following Weak Verbs were once of the Strong Conjugation:—*

Infinitive.	*Preterite in A.S.*	*Infinitive.*	*Preterite in A.S.*
carve	cearf-curfon (*carf* in Ch.)	sleep	slép (*sleep* in Ch.)
cleave	cleáf-clufon (*cleef* in Piers Pl.)	starve	stearf-sturfon (*starf* in Ch.)
creep	creáp-crupon (*crop* in Piers Pl.)	step	stóp (*stope* in Ch.)
delve	dealf-dulfon (*dalf* in Rob. Gl.)	swell	sweall-swullon (*swal* in Ch.)
help	healp-hulpon (*halp* in Ch.)	throng	thrang (*throng* in Ch.)
leap	hleóp (*leep* in Ch.)	wash	wósc (*wesh* in Ch.)
melt	mealt-multon (*malt* in Piers Pl.)	weep	weóp (*wep* in Ch.)

PERSONAL INFLEXIONS OF AN ENGLISH VERB.

227. The following table exhibits the *personal inflexions* of a verb. Let a single stroke (————) stand for the infinitive mood (without *to*), and a double stroke (═══════) for the first person singular of the past indefinite tense.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.†
1. ————		1. ————
2. ————	est *or* st	2. ————
3. ————	eth,‡ es, *or* s.	3. ————

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular.		Plural.
1. ═══════		1. ═══════
2. ═══════	est *or* st.§	2. ═══════
3. ═══════		3. ═══════

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. ————	1. ————
2. ————	2. ————
3. ————	3. ————

* Milton uses "he wons" = *he dwells* (German *wohnen*).

† In early English the termination of the plural of this tense in all three persons was *-es* in the Northern, *-en* in the Midland, and *-eth* in the Southern dialects: "They hopes" (N); "They hopen" (M); "They hopeth" (S).

‡ The pronunciation of *fle-eth*, *se-eth*, &c., shows that the suffix is *-eth*, not *-th*. The *e* of *-est* may be dropped whenever the pronunciation permits.

§ This suffix originally belonged only to the weak conjugation. In the strong conjugation the suffix was *-e*, which we still find in Chaucer. (See § 230.) In the Northern dialect the *e* was thrown off, so that we find such forms as *thou gaf*, *thou saw*, &c. (See § 236.) In early English *est* or *st* was often thrown off in verbs of the weak conjugation, as "Why *nad* (= *ne had*) thou put" (Chaucer). This was especially the case in the Northern dialect.

Past Indefinite Tense.

The same * as in the Indicative Mood.

The suffix *es* is added to verbs ending in a sibilant (as *pass-es, catch-es*) ; *o* (as *go-es, do-es*) ; or *y* preceded by a consonant, as *fli-es, piti-es.* If a verb ends in *ic*, *c* is changed to *ck* before *-ing*, *-ed*, or *-eth*, to preserve the hard sound of the *c*, as *trafficking, mimicked.*

VERBAL INFLEXIONS IN ANGLO-SAXON.

228.—A. Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.

Niman (*to take*).

Inf.—niman. *Imp. Part.*—nimende. *Perf. Part.*—(ge)numen.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. nime	nimaþ	1. nám	námon
2. nimest	nimaþ	2. náme	námon
3. nimeþ	nimaþ	3. nám	námon

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1, 2, and 3. nime	nimen	1, 2, and 3. náme	námen

Creópan (*to creep*).

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plur.*
1. creópe	creópaþ	1. creáp	crupon
2. crýpst	creópaþ	2. crupe	crupon
3. crýpþ	creópaþ	3. creáp	crupon

Let particular attention be paid to the inflexions of the Preterite Tense, especially the absence of *-st* in the second person singular, and the curious change of vowel.†

229.—B. Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

Lufjan (*to love*).

Inf.—lufjan. *Imp. Part.*—lufjende (lufigende).
Perf. Part.—(ge)lufod.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. lufje (lufige)	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	1. lufode	lufodon
2. lufast	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	2. lufodest	lufodon
3. lufaþ	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	3. lufode	lufodon

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1, 2, and 3. lufje (lufige)	lufjen (lufigen)	lufode	lufoden

Imperative.—Sing., lufa *Plural*, lufjaþ.

* That is in *modern* English. The use of *-est* or *-st* in the second person singular of the subjunctive does not belong to the earlier stages of the language.

† This change is still found in Chaucer, as "I wroot," "we writen"; "I heng, they hynge."

VERBAL INFLEXIONS IN CHAUCER.

230. The Infinitive ends in **-en** or **-e**. The Imperfect Participle ends in **-yng** or **-ynge**. The Past Participle of Strong Verbs ends in **-en** or **-e**; that of Weak Verbs in **-ed** or **-d** (sometimes in **-et** or **-t**), and often has the prefix **ge-**, or its weakened form **i-**.

The inflected gerund is occasionally found (as 'to seene,' *Kn. T.* 177).

The Present Indicative has in the Singular the suffixes (1) **e**, often dropped or elided, (2) **est**, (3) **eth**, and in the Plural **-en** or **-e** for all persons.

When a verb ends in **-d** or **-t**, **-deth**, or **-teth** is replaced by **-t**, as *stant=standeth*, *ryt=rydeth*, *brest=bresteth* (*bursts*).

The same inflexions occur in the Preterite Indicative of Weak Verbs.

The suffix of the Preterite in Weak Verbs was **-ede**, **-de**, or **-te**. When the verb-stem ended in **-t**, the **d** of the suffix often disappeared, as in *caste=castede*. After **-t** we get **-te**, as *lette*, *mette*, &c. After **-d** the suffix was **-de**, as *ledde*, *fedde*, &c.

The Preterite of Strong Verbs has **-e** (now and then **-est**) in the Second Person Singular, and **-en** or **-e** in all persons of the plural. The plural also sometimes shows the curious change noticed in § 225, 4. Thus 'I schal,' 'ye schul'; 'I heng, they hynge,' &c.

The Present and Preterite Subjunctive have **-e** in all persons of the Singular and **-en** in all persons of the Plural.

The Imperative ends in **-eth** in the Plural, and (in some classes of verbs) in **-e** in the Singular. The Northern dialect has *-s* for *-th* in the Imperative.

DEFECTIVE AND ANOMALOUS VERBS

231. The verbs **shall, will, may, must, can, dare, wit** are *defective;* that is, have not all the usual moods and tenses.

A peculiarity which all these verbs (except *will*) have in common, is, that the present tense is in reality a preterite of the strong conjugation, which has replaced an older present, and has had its own place supplied by a secondary preterite of the weak conjugation. One consequence of this is, that they **none of them take -s as a suffix in the third person singular**, as that suffix does not belong to the preterite tense. They take after them the infinitive without *to*.

232.

SHALL.

[Infinitive in A.S. **sculan** = 'to owe.']

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] shall	1. [We] shall*	1. [I] should	1. [We] should
2. [Thou] shalt†	2. [You] shall	2. [Thou] shouldst	2. [You] should
3. [He] shall	3. [They] shall	3. [He] should	3. [They] should

* In A.S. the forms were:—*Sing.* 1. sceal; 2. scealt; 3. sceal; *Pl.* 1, 2, and 3. sculon. Chaucer uses *shal* in the singular, and *shul* or *shulen* in the plural.

† The *t* in *shalt*, *wilt*, *art*, *wast*, *wert*, is an older form of the suffix than *-st*. (See § 219, note.) In early English we often find 'Thou shal,' 'Thou wil,' 'Thou can,' 'Thou may.'

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular...1. [I] should. 2. [Thou] should *or* shouldst* 3. [He] should.
Plural.....1. [We] should. 2. [You] should. 3. [They] should

Shall (A.S. *sceal*) is (in form) a preterite.† When it came to be used as a present tense, another preterite (*should*) of the weak conjugation was formed to supply its place. The *ou* of *should* comes from the *u* of *sculan*. In Anglo-Saxon the verb means 'to owe'‡ It then came to indicate some compulsion or obligation arising either from the will of some superior authority, or from some external source. Hence it is used in direct or reported commands, as "Thou shalt not steal"; "Ye shall not surely die," *i.e.* 'There is surely no edict that ye shall die'; "The tyrant shall perish," *i.e.* 'Circumstances or the will of others demand that the tyrant shall perish'; "He demanded where Christ should be born," *i.e.* 'Where it was fated or prophesied that he was to be born'; "You should always obey your parents," *i.e.* 'It is your duty to obey your parents.' It often conveys this sense in the first person, as "What shall I do?" *i.e.* "What ought I (*or* am I) to do?" and even when used as an auxiliary the verb does not always altogether lose this force. (See § 213.)

In exclamations it is often omitted, as "What, I love! I sue! I seek a wife!" "Thou wear a lion's hide!" (*Shakspeare*).

In Scotch and in the Northern dialects *I shall* is often abbreviated to *I'se* or *Ish*.

283.

WILL.

Infinitive Mood—**To Will** (A.S. *willan*).

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] will	1. [We] will	1. [I] would	1. [We] would
2. [Thou] wilt	2. [You] will	2. [Thou] wouldst	2. [You] would
3. [He] will	3. [They] will	3. [He] would	3. [They] would

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense—Like the Indicative.

Will is followed by the infinitive without *to*; as, "He *will* not obey."

This verb, besides being used as a mere auxiliary for forming future tenses in the second and third persons (see § 211) is used to express determination or intention. It has this force in all its persons, as—"Not as I *will*, but as thou *wilt*"; "In spite of warning, he *will* continue his evil practices."

This verb is also used to express the frequent repetition of an action;

* This *-est* or *-st* is modern. (See note § on § 227.)

† According to Grimm *shall* or *skal* is the preterite or perfect of a verb meaning *to kill*. As killing involved the payment of the penalty or *wer-geld*, 'I have killed,' came to mean 'I owe the fine,' and thence 'I owe' simply.

‡ "Hu micel scealt þu?" = "How much shalt thou?" = "How much owest thou? (*Luke* xvi. 5). So in Chaucer, "The feith I *shal* (= owe) to God and yow" (*Tr. and Cr.* 1600). But the verb is also used in Anglo-Saxon as the auxiliary of the future tense.

as, "When he was irritated, he *would* rave like a madman," "Sometimes a thousand twanging instruments *will* hum about my ears" (Shaksp., *Tempest*).

An old form of the present was *I wol* or *I wole* (compare the Latin *volo*), whence the negative *I won't*. In colloquial English the verb is often shortened by the omission of *wi* or *woul*, as *I'll* = *I will*, *I'd* = *I would*. (Respecting *chill*, *chud*, &c., see § 137.) In old English it was combined with the negative *ne*, *ic nille* = *I will not*, *ic nolde* = *I would not*. We still have the phrase *willy nilly* = *will he nill he*, or *will ye nill ye*.

The participle *willing* has become a mere qualitative adjective.

Besides *willan* there existed in Anglo-Saxon the Weak forms *willian* and *wilnian*, meaning, 'to desire *or* wish for.' From *willian* comes the transitive verb 'to will,' conjugated like an ordinary weak verb and admitting an object after it, as "He *wills* my destruction," "They *willed* my ruin." Chaucer (*Sq. T.* 120) has *wilneth* = *desireth*.

234. MAY.

Indicative and Subjunctive Moods.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] may	1. [We] may	1. [I] might	1. [We] might
2. [Thou] mayest *or* mayst	2. [You] may	2. [Thou] mightest	2. [You] might
3. [He] may	3. [They] may	3. [He] might	3. [They] might

235. The forms of the Present Indicative in Anglo-Saxon were:

Singular, 1. mæg; 2. miht; 3. mæg. *Plural*, 1, 2, and 3. magon.

In early English 'Thou miht,' or 'Thou myght' is found; as 'Amende thee while thou myght' (*Piers Pl.* 7454); also 'Thou may' (*Maundeville*, &c.). A past participle is found in Chaucer, 'He had might' = 'he had been able.'

236. The *y* in *may* is a softening of the *g* in the root *mag* (A. S. Inf. *magan*). The modern present, *I may*, &c., is in reality a preterite tense of an older verb, and (like *memini*, *novi*, &c.) had originally a *perfect* meaning of its own, which passed into a secondary *present* sense, denoting the abiding result of some action.

A collateral variety of *may* was *mow* or *mowe*. 'They mowe' = *they may* in Chaucer (*Cl. T.* 530); "Nought mought (= *could*) him awake" (Spenser, *F. Q.* I. 1, 42).

237. The verb *may* formerly denoted the possession of strength or power to do anything.* It now indicates the absence of any physical or moral obstacle to an action, as "A man may be rich and yet not happy"; "He might be seen any day walking on the pier," *i.e.*, 'there was nothing to hinder his being seen.' The notion of *permission* springs naturally from this meaning. When thus used it is a *principal* or *notional* verb.

The verb *may* (when itself in the subjunctive mood) is often employed

* Thus in *Matt.* viii. 2, for "Thou *canst* make me clean" we find in Anglo-Saxon "ðu miht me geclænsian"; in Wycliffe's version, "Thou maist make me clene." In A.S. "bútan nettum huntian ic mæg" (I can hunt without nets).

The root of this verb (*mag*) is identified by some (Fick, *Vergl. Wört.* vol. iii. p. 227) with that of *mag-nus*, *mac-tus*, and μέγας, size and strength being closely related ideas.

as a mere auxiliary of the subjunctive after *that* and *lest*. Instead of "Give me this water that I thirst not," we now say "that I may not thirst." (See § 185.)

MUST.

238. This verb has now no variations of form.

In Anglo-Saxon we find *Infinitive* mótan = 'to be able.'
Indic. Pres. Sing. 1. Mót; 2. Móst; 3. Mót. *Pl.* Móton.
Pret. Sing. 1 and 3. Móste; 2. Móstest. *Pl.* Moston.
In Chaucer, *Sing.* 1 and 3. Mot *or* moot; 2. Most *or* must; *Pl.* mooten *or* moote; though he also uses 'I moste' as a present tense; thus, 'I moste gon' = 'I must go' (*Tale of M. of L.* 282).

239. *Must* (A.S. móste) is the preterite* of the verb mótan = *to be allowed*, or *to be in a position to do something*.† It still has this sense in such phrases as "You must not come in," *i.e.*, 'You are not permitted to come in.' The old present *mote* is still used by Spenser.‡

240. When the preterite *must* came to be used as a present, it acquired a stronger sense, and was used to express (1) *being bound or compelled* to do something, as "He *must* do as he is bid": (2) being unable to control the desire or will, hence a *fixed determination* to do something; as "I *must* and will have my own way"; "So you *must* always be meddling, *must* you?": (3) *Certainty*, or the idea that a thing cannot but be as is stated; as "He surely *must* have arrived by this time"; "It must be so; Plato, thou reasonest well."

241. The verb *must* is now used only in the indicative mood, and with a *present* signification. In the sense 'was obliged' (as in "He must needs pass through Samaria," *John* iv. 4) it is obsolete. "I must have been mistaken" means "It must be the case that I was mistaken," *i.e.* 'It *can not* (present) be that I was not mistaken.'

242.

CAN.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] can	1. [We] can	1. [I] could	1. [We] could
2. [Thou] canst	2. [You] can	2. [Thou] couldest *or* couldst	2. [You] could
3. [He] can	3. [They] can	3. [He] could	3. [They] could

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense. Like the Indicative.

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* The *s* of *must* is a softened form of the *t* of the root *mot* before the *t* of the suffix. Compare the form *wist* (§ 245). See *Koch*, i. p. 356.

† *E.g.* "Josep bæd Pilatus þæt he móste niman þæs Hælendes lichaman," 'Joseph begged Pilate that he might be allowed to (*must*) take the Saviour's body' (*John* xix. 38).

‡ "Frælissa was as faire as faire mote bee" (*F. Q.* i. 2, 37). Byron, who sometimes affects archaisms without understanding them, uses *mote* as a *past* tense, "Whate'er this grief mote be, which he could not control."

243. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

Infinitive cunnan ; **P. P.** gecúð.

Indicative Mood.

Pres. Tense. *Sing.* 1. cann ; 2. canst *or* canne ; 3. cann. *Pl.* cunnon.
Preterite. *Sing.* 1. cúðe · 2. cúðest ; 3. cúðe. *Plural*, cúðon.

FORMS IN CHAUCER.

Infinitive. To conne. **Past P.** couth.

Pres. *Sing.* 1. can ; 2. canst *or* can ; 3. can. *Pl.* connen *or* conne.
Pret. *Sing.* 1. and 3. coude *or* couthe ; 2. coudest. *Pl.* coude *or* couthe.

The *l* in *could* does not properly belong to the verb. It has been inserted to make it agree in form with *should* and *would*. The A.S. 'cúðe' and early English 'coude' have lost the *n* of the root, which was still used in Gothic (*kuntha*). See § 137. *Coude* or *could* is of the Weak Conjugation.

The old meaning of the verb is '**to know**,'* a sense which it still bears in Chaucer,† and which is preserved in the form 'to con.'

The adjective *cunning* is the old Imperfect Participle of the verb. A '*cunning* person' is a '*knowing* person.' *Uncouth* is a compound of the Past Participle,‡ and in Milton means "unknown" (*Lycid.* 186).

Can (= *novi* in Latin) is the Preterite (*Strong form*) from a present which has disappeared.§ Unlike *shalt*, *wilt*, &c., 'canst' has *-st.*‖

244. **OUGHT.**

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. [I] ought	1. [We] ought
2. [Thou] oughtest	2. [You] ought
3. [He] ought	3. [They] ought

Ought is the past tense of the verb *to owe*¶ and is used in its old sense by Shakspeare (*I. King H. IV.*, iii. 3), "He said you ought him a thousand pounds." It is now used as a past only in the reported form, as 'He said I *ought* to be satisfied.' In direct sentences the reference to past time is indicated by using a perfect infinitive after it, as "He ought *to have said* so," *i.e.*, 'It *was* his duty *to say* so.' "He ought (*pres.*) to do it" means 'he owes the doing of it.'**

* As "Ne cann ic eów" = 'I know you not' (*Matt.* xxv. 12).

† As "*Can* no division" = '*Knows* no distinction' (*Kn. T.* 922). It also means 'to be able,' as "That ne conne not know" = 'That are not able to know' (*Man of L. T.* 483).

‡ Connected with the participle *couth* (A.S gecúð) is the noun *kith* = 'acquaintance.' 'Kith and kin' means 'acquaintance and kinsfolk.'

§ *Can* is another form of the Aryan root *gan* or *gnâ*, which appears as *gno* or *kno* in *gnosco* and *know*. *Name* (like *no-men*) contains the root without the *g* or *k*. The word *ken* is cognate, but of Scandinavian origin. (Skeat, *Et. Dict.*)

‖ In Gothic, however, it is *kant*.

¶ The present tense of A.S. *ágan* was 'Ic ah,' &c. This is in reality a preterite formation. From it was formed the secondary preterite *ahte*. The guttural *h* of this word accounts for the *gh* of *ought*.

** Compare the Latin 'Hoc facere debet.' *Debeo* is a compound of *de* and *habeo* ; 'I have from' = 'I owe to.'

The original meaning of 'to owe' (A.S. *ágan*) was 'to possess.' It often has this meaning in Shakspeare. (See Schmidt's *Lexicon.*) "You *owe me* a thousand pounds" means really "You *have for me* a thousand pounds." Though the dative is essential to the meaning, the verb came to have its modern sense independently of the dative.*

From the A.S. *ágan* was formed a passive participle *ágen*='possessed.' The adjective *own* is the modern form of this. "My *own* book"= 'My *possessed* book.' This adjective was turned into the verb 'to own,' from which 'owned' was made in its turn. So in A.S. from 'ágen' was made 'agnian'='to own.' 'To own'='to grant or concede' is from the different A.S. verb *unnan* (still used by Layamon and Ormin). It has got confused with the preceding verb.

There used to be a perfect participle *ought.*† *To owe*, in its modern sense, is conjugated regularly as a verb of the weak conjugation.

245. WIT.

To wit (A.S. *witan*) means 'to know.' "I do you to wit," means 'I make you to know.' The forms *I wot*, *God wot*, *you wot*, *they wot*, are found in old writers. *Wot* (A.S. *wát*) is a preterite of the strong form, used as a present,‡ and replaced by a preterite *wist* of the weak conjugation.§

In Chaucer the forms for the present are—*Sing.* 1. wot; 2. wost; 3. wot or woot; *Pl.* witen.

Wots, *wotteth* (*Gen.* xxxix. 8), and *wotted* are false forms (see § 227), as is the participle *wotting* (*Winter's Tale*, iii. 2). The old form was *witende.* The correct form is retained in *unwittingly*. The past participle *unwist* is used by Surrey. (Comp. Germ. *ungewusst.*)

Combination with the negative *ne* gave the old English forms *nat* (i.e. *ne wát*)=*know not*, *niste* (i.e. *ne wiste*)=*knew not*, &c.

DARE.

246. I dare is an old preterite, now used as a present. The third person is therefore properly *he* **dare**, not *he dares* (§ 231). The past tense now in use is '**I durst.**' (The older form of the root was *daurs*, which accounts for the *s*. Compare θαρσ-εῖν.) *To dare* is also conjugated like an ordinary Weak Verb. The two sets of forms have got confused.

Anglo-Saxon Forms:—Sing. 1. dear; 2. dearst; 3. dear. *Pl.* durron.‖ *Past Tense.* dorste, &c.

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* In early English we find a very curious impersonal use of *ought*; thus "Us oughte have patience"='It beseems us to have patience' (*Chaucer, Melib*); "As him oughte" (*Man of L. T.*, 1097).

† Phrases like "He *hadn't ought* to do it" are perfectly grammatical, though vulgar.

‡ The root *wit* is the same as *Fιδ* in the Greek *Fιδεῖν*, and *vid* in the Latin *vid-eo*, and originally meant *see.* The preterite present *wot* may be compared with the Greek *οἶδα.* 'I have seen'='I know.'

§ The *s* of *wist* is a softened form of the *t* of *wit* before the *t* of the suffix in *witte.* This change occurs in various Teutonic languages. Compare *must* (§ 239, note), "I wist not that he was the high priest"='I *knew* not,' &c. (*Acts* xxiii. 5). *Wist* has nothing to do with an imaginary present *I wis*, which (when not a mere affectation) is simply a corruption of the word *ywis*=*certain* (A.S *gewis*). The verb *to wiss*=*to show* or *teach* (A.S. *wisian* or *wissian*) is a different verb, though derived from the same root.

‖ These inflexions mark a preterite tense.

THINKS.

247. The impersonal **THINKS** (in *methinks*) means '**seems**,' and comes from the Anglo-Saxon *thincan*, 'to appear.' The past tense is **methought.*** It is not the same as the verb 'I think' (from *thencan*), though the latter verb (meaning 'I cause to appear,' *i.e.* to my mind) is related to the former as '*drench*' (= *make to drink*) is to '*drink*.'

"Me **LISTS**" = it pleases me. "Him **listed**" = it pleased him. This verb is sometimes used as personal; 'I list,' &c., like *please*.†

"Woe **worth** the day" = 'Woe be to the day.' **WORTH** is a relic of the old verb *weorthan* = to become.

HIGHT (= *is called* or *was called*) is properly a reduplicated perfect (Gothic *haihait*) of *hátan* 'to call,' or 'be named.' It is also used as a present tense. Chaucer has the present "I hoote" (*Kn. T.* 700), and the preterite "highte" (*Prol.* 616). In Shakspeare 'hight' is a present tense.‡ The verb *hátan* (like *heissen* in German) means both 'to command or promise' and 'to be called' (*i.e.* 'to call or proclaim oneself'). In A.S. the preterite was *heht* in the active sense, and *háte* in the passive sense.

NEED, though not a preterite, has been so far assimilated to the preterite-present verbs, that the third person is 'he need,' not 'he needs.' When thus used, the verb has the sense "to be under a necessity to do something." Where it signifies "to be in want of" it is conjugated in the ordinary manner. The third person singular *needs* must not be confounded with the adverb *needs* (*i.e.* of need *or* necessity), as in "He must *needs* go through Samaria."

DIGHT (from *dihtan* 'to adorn') is a perf. part. shortened from *dighted*.§ *Dight* was also once used as a present tense and as a preterite.

248. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb HAVE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] have. **Perfect Tense**, [To] have had.

Participles.

Imperfect Participle, Having; **Perfect Participle** (passive), Had; **Compound Perfect Participle** (active), Having had.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] have; 2. [Thou] hast; 3. [He] hath *or* has.
Plural. 1. [We] have; 2. [You] have; 3. [They] have.

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* In Chaucer we find 'it thinketh me' (*Kn. T.* 3968), and 'it thoughte me' (*Prol.* 385).

† These impersonal verbs were formerly much more common. Thus "The hungreth" (*Piers Pl.*, &c); "Me thursteth"; "It me forthynketh" = 'poenitet me'; "Hem nedeth." In Chaucer we find "Me mette" = 'I dreamed'; "Him gamed" = 'he was pleased'; "Him smerte" = 'he was pained.'

‡ As: "This grisly beast, which by name Lion hight, the trusty Thisbe . . . did scare away" (*Mids. N. D.* v. 1). There is no participle *hight*, though Byron invents one. (Compare note on § 239.) In early English we find 'was haten' or 'was hoten' (= *was called*). The root of hátan is identical with that of the Greek καλέω. This interchange of *t* or *d* with *l* is quite common, as in *lacrima* = δακρυ = *tear*. (See note ‡ on § 101.)

§ *Decked* (from *deck*), meaning 'covered' or 'adorned,' has got confused with this word.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] have had, &c. *Plural.* [We] have had, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] had; 2. [Thou] hadst; 3. [He] had.
Plural. 1. [We] had; 2. [You] had; 3. [They] had.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] had had, &c. *Plural.* [We] had had, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall have; 2. [Thou] wilt have; 3. [He] will have.
Plural. 1. [We] shall have; 2. [You] will have; 3. [They] will have.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall have had, &c. *Plural.* [We] shall have had, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Have [thou]. *Plural.* Have [you *or* ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(Used after *if, that, lest, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have; 2. [Thou] have; 3. [He] have.
Plural. 1. [We] have; 2. [You] have; 3. [They] have.

Present Perfect Tense.

(Used after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have had; 2. [Thou] have had; 3. [He] have had.
Plural. 1. [We] have had, &c.

(*a.*) **Past Indefinite Tense.**

(Used mostly after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as in the Indicative Mood.

(*b.*) *Secondary or Compound Form.*

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Sing. 1. [I] should have; 2. [Thou] wouldst have; 3. [He] would have.
Plural. 1. [We] should have; 2. [You] would have; 3. [They] would have.

(*a.*) **Past Perfect Tense.**

(Used mostly after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as the Indicative.

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* After *if, though, unless, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should.*

(*b.*) *Secondary or Compound Form.*

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. [I] should have had.	1. [We] should have had.
2. [Thou] wouldst have had.	2. [You] would have had.
3. [He] would have had.	3. [They] would have had.

When *have* is followed by a noun that implies some continuous act, as 'to have a game,' 'to have one's dinner,' &c., it may have also imperfect tenses like an ordinary verb.

Had is a short form for *haved*, *hast* for *havest*, *hath* for *haveth*.

249. In Anglo-Saxon the stem of the verb is *hab* (*Infin.* 'habban'). But the *b* is softened to *f* before a suffix beginning with a consonant. The personal inflexions are those of the Weak Conjugation.

For the infinitive or plural *haven* Chaucer uses *han*. He also uses *nath* (*ne hath*) = *hath not*; *nadde* or *nad* (*ne hadde*) = *had not*. Similar forms were used in Anglo-Saxon.

When the verb is used as a mere auxiliary of perfect tenses, the notion of 'possessing' has (now) altogether evaporated.

There is nothing anomalous in the conjugation of *Have*, except that *havest* becomes *hast*; *haved*, *had*; *haves*, *has*; and *haveth*, *hath*.

The verb *have* sometimes has the meaning of *keep* or *hold* (as 'to have in mind'). It may then be conjugated like an ordinary verb.

250. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb BE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] be. **Perfect Tense,** [To] have been.

Participles.

Imperfect, Being; **Perfect,** Been; **Compound Perfect,** Having been.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.†

Singular. 1. [I] am; 2. [Thou] art; 3. [He] is.
Plural. 1. [We] are; 2. [You] are; 3. [They] are.

Present Perfect Tense.‡

Singular. [I] have been, &c. *Plural.* [We] have been, &c.

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* After *if*, *though*, *unless*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should*.

† Another form of the present tense, indicative mood, still used in some parts of the country, and found in Shakspeare and Milton, is [*I*] *be*, [*thou*] *beest*, [*he*] *be*, [*we*] *be* or *ben*, [*you*] *be* or *ben*, [*they*] *be*, *ben*, or *bin*. In "Everything that pretty bin" (*Shaksp.*), *bin* is probably *plural*, *everything* being treated as equivalent to *all things* (see § 175). Byron's use of *bin* ("There bin another pious reason" is of no authority. See note on § 239. In the Northern dialect (*e.g.* in Hampole and 'Cursor Mundi'), *es* and *er* (= *is* and *are*) are alternative plural forms for all persons. Shakspeare often uses *is* as a plural. As the word consists of the mere root (*is* = *as*) without suffix, it may as well be plural as singular. Similar remarks apply to *wes* and *wer*, which are both plural in the Northern dialect. ('They was' in *T. Andron*, iv. 1, 38.)

‡ For the full forms of these compound tenses see the paradigm of the verb *smite*.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] was; 2. [Thou] wast *or* wert*; 3. [He] was.
Plural. 1. [We] were; 2. [You] were; 3. [They] were.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] had been; 2. [Thou] hadst been, &c.
Plural. 1. [We] had been, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall be; 2. [Thou] wilt be; 3. [He] will be.
Plural. 1. [We] shall be; 2. [You] will be; 3. [They] will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall have been; 2. [Thou] wilt have been, &c.
Plural. 1. [We] shall have been; 2. [You] will have been, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Be [thou]. *Plural.* Be [ye *or* you].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] be; 2. [Thou] be; 3. [He] be.
Plural. 1. [We] be; 2. [You] be; 3. [They] be.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have been; 2. [Thou] have been; 3. [He] have been.
Plural. 1. [We] have been; 2. [You] have been; 3. [They] have been.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] were; 2. [Thou] wert; 3. [He] were.
Plural. 1. [We] were; 2. [You] were; 3. [They] were.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.†)

Singular. 1. [I] should be; 2. [Thou] wouldst be; 3. [He] would be.
Plural. 1. [We] should be; 2. [You] would be; 3. [They] would be.

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.†)

Singular. 1. [I] should have been; 2. [Thou] wouldst have been; 3. [He] would have been.
Plural. 1. [We] should have been; 2. [You] would have been; 3. [They] would have been.

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* There is no necessity for regarding *wert* as exclusively a subjunctive form. In Anglo-Saxon the form was *wǽre*. *Thou were* is found in early English writers. *Wert* is formed after the analogy of *wilt* and *shalt*. The form *wast* did not appear in English before the fourteenth century, and was preceded by *was* (*thou was*). *Wast* is used by Wycliffe *Wert*, as a subjunctive form, belongs only to modern English. (*Koch*, i. p. 348.)

† After *if, though, unless, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed by ***shouldst*** and ***should***.

251. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

Inf.—beón, wesan. **Imp. Part.**—wesende. **Perf. Part.**—(ge)wesen.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	beóm (beó)	bist (byst)	býð
	eom	eart	is (ys)
Plural.	beóð	beóð	beóð
	sindon (sind)	sindon (sind)	sindon (sind)
	aron	aron	aron

Preterite Tense.

Sing.	wæs	wǽre	wæs
Plural.	wǽron	wǽron	wǽron

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	beó	beó	beó
	síe (sí, seó)	síe (sí, seó)	síe (sí, seó)
	wese	wese	wese
Plural.	beón	beón	beón
	síen (sín)	síen (sín)	síen (sín)
	wesen	wesen	wesen

Preterite Tense.

Sing.	wǽre	wǽre	wǽre
Plural.	wǽren	wǽren	wǽren

Imperative.

	1	2
Sing.	beó	wes
Plural.	beóð	wesað

FORMS IN CHAUCER.

Infinitive—ben, been, *or* be. **Past P.**—ben, been.

Indicative.

Present Tense.

Singular. 1. am; 2. art; 3. beth *or* is.
Plural. ben, arn, *or* are.

Preterite Tense.

Singular. 1. was; 2. were; 3. was.
Plural. weren *or* were.

Imperative.

Singular. be. *Plural.* beth.

252. Inspection of the preceding forms will show that the conjugation of this verb is made up from three different roots.

(1.) The present tense of the indicative mood is formed from the old Aryan root *as*, which appears in Greek and Latin in the form *es*. The *s* of the root is dropped in *am* = *a(s)m*, and softened to *r* in *art* and *are*.

In *am* **-m** is a relic of the pronoun *me* of the First Person* (§ 219). It occurs in no other English verb. Respecting the suffix *-t* in *art*, see § 219 and note. *Is* is the mere root without personal suffix. *Are* (=*aron*, i.e. *as-on*, of the Northern dialect) is of Scandinavian origin. *Sind* has exactly the same radical elements as *sunt* in Latin.

(2.) The present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, and the participles are formed from the root *be*.†

(3.) The past indefinite tense of the indicative and subjunctive is formed from the root *wes* or *was*, *s* being softened to *r* in the plural and in the subjunctive.‡

In old English *nam* (*ne am*) = *am not*, *nart* (*ne art*) = *art not*, &c.

The verb *be* has its notional meaning (§ 185) in such sentences as "To be, or not to be, that is the question."

253. The verb *be* is a most important verb for the right understanding of the etymology and syntax of verbs in general, because it has distinct forms for the past indefinite in the indicative and subjunctive moods. The verb *be*, therefore, is a *test* verb. By substituting it (if possible) in place of any other verb in a sentence where the construction is doubtful or difficult, we can see directly what part of the verb it is that is really used. In such sentences as, "He *would* not come (*i.e.* 'he *was* not willing to come') when I called him;" "He *could* not lift the weight (*i.e.* 'he *was* not able to lift the weight') when he tried;" "He told me that I might go" (*i.e.* 'that it *was* permitted me to go'); the verbs *could*, *would*, *might*, are in the indicative mood: the sentences are simple assertions. On the other hand, in such sentences as "I *could* not do it if I *were* to try;" "I *should* not have said that, if you *had* not asked me;" "I *would* not tell you if I *could*;" "He *might* have done it if he *had* liked;"—the verbs which are in italics are in the subjunctive mood; it is impossible to substitute for them phrases containing the indicative mood of the verb 'be.'

254. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb DO.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite, [To] do; **Imperfect**, [To] be doing; **Perfect**, [To] have done.

Participles.

Imperfect, Doing; **Perfect**, Done; **Compound Perfect**, Having done.

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* *Am* contains in reality the same radical elements (*as-m*) as *sum* in Latin (*es-u-m*), where *u* is only a connecting vowel, and εἰμί (= ἐσμί) in Greek. The root *as* (according to some authorities) means 'breathe.'

† The root *be* is the same as *fu-* or *fo-* in Latin (*fui*, *fore*) and φυ (φύω) in Greek, and means 'grow' or 'cause to grow.'

‡ The root *wes* is said to mean 'abide.'

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] do; 2. [Thou] dost; 3. [He] doth or does.
Plural. 1. [We] do; 2. [You] do; 3. [They] do.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] did; 2. [Thou] didst; 3. [He] did.
Plural. 1. [We] did; 2. [You] did; 3. [They] did.

254*b*. *Do* (when used as a notional verb) is not defective in Voice, Mood, or Tense. *Did* is a reduplicated Preterite. (See § 221.) The forms *doest* and *doeth* do not belong to the verb when it is a mere auxiliary, nor do the infinitive mood and the participles. *Do* requires the simple infinitive (§ 195) after it ('do *love*,' &c.), except in the phrase "I (we) do you to wit."

255. This verb *do* (A.S. *dón*) must not be confounded with *do* from A.S. *dugan*, 'to avail, to be strong, to profit,' which is used in the phrases 'That will *do*,' 'How do you *do*?'* &c. (In Scotch *dow*, pret. *docht*, *dowcht* or *dought*, from which we get *doughty*.) Through confusion the preterite *did* is now used for both verbs.

Do is used as an ordinary transitive verb, as 'He did the deed'; 'Do justice.' Formerly, also, when followed by the simple infinitive it had the sense of 'make' or 'cause,' as:—"Sche doth me al this wo endure" (Chaucer, *Kn. T.* 1538 = 'She causes me to endure'; "They have done her understonde" (*Gower*) = 'They have made her understand'; "We do† you to wit." *Do* had also the sense of 'put,' as *don* = 'put on'; *dup* = 'put up' (i.e. 'open'; compare the German *aufthun*); *doff* = 'put off'; *dout* or *douse* = 'put out.'

Do is also used as an intransitive notional verb, as "I shall not *do* so," i.e. '*act* so.'

256. **Do as an auxiliary verb**, followed by the simple infinitive of a verb, constitutes a compound equivalent of the simple present or past indefinite tense of that verb. Thus "I do see" = 'I see'; "He did fall" = 'he fell.' When an emphasis is laid upon the auxiliary verb this form becomes the emphatic form‡ of the verb, as "I *do* love you"; "That *does* astonish me."

This *compound* form is used in ordinary§ speech instead of the *simple* present and past indefinite tenses of verbs in **negative** and **interrogative** sentences, as:—"I do not hear you" = 'I hear you not'; "We did not speak" = 'we spoke not'; "Do you hear?" = 'Hear you?'; "Did he not say so?" = 'said he not so?'

But the verb *do* is never employed when the subject of the sentence is an interrogative pronoun, or when an interrogative word qualifies the subject or an adjective attached to the subject, as "Who broke the window?" "Which boy did this?" "How many persons voted?"

* Wedgwood, however, suggests that in this phrase 'do' = 'perform,' "How do you perform [the duties and functions of life]?" and compares the old French "Comment le faites vous?" So in German we have "Was machen Sie?"

† Or does this mean "We *put* you to the knowing of it"?

‡ The emphatic sense is due entirely to the *stress laid upon the auxiliary*. It does not exist when there is no stress on the verb do. But then any verb becomes emphatic when a stress is laid upon it.

§ In poetry the simple forms are frequently retained.

With elision of the dependent infinitive, the unemphatic verb *do* forms a weak repetition of a preceding verb, as "I do not spend so much as he does [spend]"; "We went away before you did [go]."

Compound forms made with the auxiliary *do* are never used to replace a compound tense of the active voice, or any tense whatever of the passive voice; nor is *do* used with the verbs *have, be, may, can, must, shall, will*, except that it may form an *emphatic imperative* of 'have' and 'be,' as "Do have patience"; "Do be quiet."

257. Complete Conjugation of a Verb.*

SMITE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite, [To] smite; **Imperfect,** [To] be smiting.
Perfect, [To] have smitten.
Perfect of Continued Action, [To] have been smiting.

Participles.

Imperfect, Smiting; **Perfect,** Having smitten.
Perfect of Continued Action, Having been smiting.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] smite; 2. [Thou] smitest; 3. [He] smites.
Plural. 1. [We] smite; 2. [You] smite; 3. [They] smite.

Present Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] am smiting; 2. [Thou] art smiting; 3. [He] is smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] are smiting; 2. [You] are smiting; 3. [They] are smiting.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have smitten; 2. [Thou] hast smitten; 3. [He] has smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have smitten; 2. [You] have smitten; 3. [They] have smitten.

Present Perfect of Continued Action.

Sing. [I] have been smiting, &c. *Plur.* [We] have been smiting, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] smote; 2. [Thou] smotest; 3. [He] smote.
Plur. 1. [We] smote; 2. [You] smote; 3. [They] smote.

Past Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] was smiting; 2. [Thou] wast smiting; 3. [He] was smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] were smiting; 2. [You] were smiting; 3. [They] were smiting.

Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] had smitten; 2. [Thou] hadst smitten; 3. [He] had smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] had smitten; 2. [You] had smitten; 3. [They] had smitten.

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* It will not be easy to make mistakes in the verb which is here given. Most grammars follow the very objectionable plan of giving as a model some verb in which the past indefinite tense and the perfect participle are the same in form. If a dozen beginners were set to analyse such a verb, three-fourths of them would probably pronounce the present perfect tense to be made up of *have* and the past indefinite tense. The verbs *drive, shake, take,* would also do for practice.

Past Perfect of Continued Action.

Sing. [I] had been smiting, &c. *Plur.* [We] had been smiting, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] shall smite; 2. [Thou] wilt smite; 3. [He] will smite.
Plur. 1. [We] shall smite; 2. [You] will smite; 3. [They] will smite.

Future Imperfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall be smiting, &c. *Plur.* [We] shall be smiting, &c.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall have smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] shall have smitten, &c.

Future Perfect of Continued Action.

[I] shall have been smiting, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Smite [thou]. *Plural.* Smite [you *or* ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if*, *that*, *though*, *lest*, &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] smite;* 2. [Thou] smite; 3. [He] smite.
Plural. 1. [We] smite; 2. [You] smite; 3. [They] smite.

Present Imperfect Tense.

(After *if*, *that*, *though*, *lest*, &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] be smiting; 2. [Thou] be smiting; 3. [He] be smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] be smiting; 2. [You] be smiting; 3. [They] be smiting.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have smitten; 2. [Thou] have smitten; 3. [He] have smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have smitten; 2. [You] have smitten; 3. [They] have smitten.

Present Perfect of Continued Action.

[I] have been smiting, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Identical in form with the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should smite; 2. [Thou] wouldst smite; 3. [He] would smite.
Plur. 1. [We] should smite; 2. [You] would smite; 3. [They] would smite.

(After *if*, *that*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Imperfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if*, *that*, *though*, &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were smiting; 2. [Thou] wert smiting; 3. [He] were smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] were smiting; 2. [You] were smiting; 3. [They] were smiting.

* After *that* the present and past indefinite tenses of the subjunctive are expressed by compounds of *may*,—'That I may smite,' 'That I might smite,' &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should be smiting; 2. [Thou] wouldst be smiting, &c.
Plur. 1. [We] should be smiting; 2. [You] would be smiting, &c.

(After *if*, *that*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if*, *though*, *unless*, &c.)

[I] had smitten, &c. (Like the Indicative.)

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should have smitten; 2. [Thou] wouldst have smitten; 3. [He] would have smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] should have smitten; 2. [You] would have smitten; 3. [They] would have smitten.

(After *if*, *though*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Perfect of Continued Action.

1. [I] had been smiting; 2. [Thou] hadst been smiting, &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

1. [I] should have been smiting; 2. [Thou] wouldst have been smiting, &c.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite. [To] be smitten.
Perfect. [To] have been smitten.

Participles.

Indefinite. Being smitten.
Perfect. Smitten, *or* Having been smitten.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] am smitten; 2. [Thou] art smitten; 3. [He] is smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] are smitten; 2. [You] are smitten; 3. [They] are smitten.

Present Imperfect Tense.

1. [I] am being smitten; 2. [Thou] art being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have been smitten; 2. [Thou] hast been smitten, &c.
Plur. 1. [We] have been smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] was smitten; 2. [Thou] wast smitten; 3. [He] was smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] were smitten; 2. [You] were smitten; 3. [They] were smitten.

Past Imperfect Tense.

Sing. [I] was being smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] were being smitten, &c.

Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] had been smitten; 2. [Thou] hadst been smitten, &c.
Plur. 1. [We] had been smitten, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] shall be smitten; 2. [Thou] wilt be smitten; 3. [He] will be smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] shall be smitten; 2. [You] will be smitten; 3. [They] will be smitten.

Future Imperfect Tense.

[I] shall be being smitten, &c.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] shall have been smitten; 2. [Thou] wilt have been smitten; 3. [He] will have been smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] shall have been smitten; 2. [You] will have been smitten; 3. [They] will have been smitten.

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Be [thou] smitten. *Plur.* Be [ye] smitten.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] be smitten; 2. [Thou] be smitten; 3. [He] be smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] be smitten; 2. [You] be smitten; 3. [They] be smitten.

(After *that* the present and past indefinite tenses are replaced by compounds of *may,* 'That I may be smitten,' 'That I might be smitten,' &c.)

Present Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Sing. [I] be being smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] be being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] have been smitten; 2. [Thou] have been smitten; 3. [He] have been smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have been smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were smitten; 2. [Thou] wert smitten; 3. [He] were smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] were smitten, &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should be smitten; 2. [Thou] wouldst be smitten; 3. [He] would be smitten.

Plur. 1. [We] should be smitten; 2. [You] would be smitten; 3. [They] would be smitten.

(After Conjunctions the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though*, &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were being smitten; 2. [Thou] wert being smitten; 3. [He] were being smitten.

Plur. 1. [We] were being smitten, &c.

Past Perfect Tense.

Identical in form with the Past Perfect Indicative.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should have been smitten; 2. [Thou] wouldst have been smitten; 3. [He] would have been smitten.

Plur. 1. [We] should have been smitten; 2. [You] would have been smitten; 3. [They] would have been smitten.

(After Conjunctions the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

It thus appears that in the conjugation of an English verb auxiliaries are used for the following purposes :—

1. The verb **have** is used to form all the **Perfect Tenses** (present, past, and future) in both voices. It is solely a tense-sign.

2. The verb **be** is used to form all the **Imperfect Tenses** of either voice, and as the auxiliary of the **Passive Voice.** In the Passive it is both a **Voice-sign** and a **Tense-sign.** The verb **be** is also used to form the Perfect Tenses of some neuter verbs in the Active Voice, as 'He is gone,' 'They were come.'

3. The verbs **shall** and **will** are used in the Indicative Mood as Tense-signs to form the **Future Tenses.** (See § 210.)

4. **May** and **might, should** and **would** are used, when they have *themselves* a subjunctive force, to make the compound or periphrastic forms of the present and past tenses of the Subjunctive Mood of other verbs. When thus used these verbs are **Mood-signs.** (See § 237.)

5. **Do** is used as an auxiliary to form Present and Past Indefinite Tenses, under the restrictions stated in § 256.

ADVERB.*

258. It has been seen (§ 88) that *things* belonging to the same group are distinguished from each other by certain qualities or attributes which are denoted by *adjectives.*

* Latin *adverbium* (from *ad* and *verbum*), Greek ἐπίῤῥημα. It was so named because its relation to the verb was the most marked and frequent. Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are *Secondary Parts of Speech.* See § 25.

In like manner **different instances** of an **action** or **attribute** are distinguished from each other as regards the **Time**, the **Place**, the **Manner**, the **Degree**, or the **Attendant Circumstances** in which each occurs or is found. These constitute the '**Conditions**' which **limit** an action or attribute, or **distinguish** it from other instances of the same sort.

259. Definition.—Adverbs are words which denote the conditions which limit or distinguish an action or attribute. This is what is meant by saying that **an adverb is a word which modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb,** as "He writes *badly*"; "The book is *too* long"; "He reads *very* badly."

260. An adverb *adds something* to the meaning of a verb or adjective, but does not *alter* the meaning of the word itself. 'Writes badly,' means all that 'writes' means, and 'badly' besides. But this word 'badly' restricts the application of the verb 'writes' to a certain class of the actions described by it. Therefore we may also have the

Definition.—An Adverb is a word which adds to the meaning, and limits the application, of a verb,* adjective, or other adverb.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

261. Adverbs may be classified in two ways, (1) according to their syntactical force, (2) according to their meaning.

262. As regards their syntactical force adverbs are of two kinds:—1. **Simple Adverbs**; 2. **Conjunctive Adverbs.**

A *simple* adverb is one which does nothing more than modify the word with which it is used, as "We arrived *yesterday*"; "He is coming *hither*." Interrogative adverbs come under this head, as "*Whither* has he gone?" (where *whither* modifies *has gone*); "*How* many were present?" (where *how* modifies *many*).

A *conjunctive* adverb is one which not only modifies some verb, adjective, or other adverb in its own clause, but connects the clause in which it occurs with the rest of the sentence; as *when* ("Come when you are ready"); *whither* ("Whither I go, ye cannot come").

Here *when* modifies the verb *are*, and *whither* modifies *go*.

263. A relative adverb always refers to some demonstrative word, expressed or understood, which stands to it in the same sort of relation that the *antecedent* stands in to a *relative pronoun*, as, "Come (*then*) *when* you are ready;" "*There, where* a few torn shrubs the place disclose."

* An Adverb may be attached to an Infinitive Mood or a Gerund, as "To rise early (*or* rising early) is a wholesome practice."

Care is necessary to distinguish connective *adverbs* * from connective words which are not adverbs. Many conjunctions refer to time, place, cause, &c.; but *they do not refer to these conditions in connection with any verb or adjective of the clause which they introduce;* but the whole of the subordinate clause has the force of an adverb attached to some word in the principal clause of the sentence, as "He said that *because* he believed it." Here *because* does not, by itself, modify either the verb *believed* or the verb *said*, but the clause *because he believed it* is an adverbial clause modifying the verb *said*.

264. The following words are **conjunctive adverbs**: *When, where, whither, whence, how,*† *why,*‡ *wherein, whereby, wherefore, whereon, whereat, whereout, whereafter, wherever, as.*§

265. Both simple and connective adverbs may be classified according to their meaning, as—

1. **Adverbs of Time**: *Now, then, after, before, presently, immediately, when, as,* "*As* I was returning I met him," &c.
2. **Adverbs of Place and Arrangement**: *Here, there, thence, where, whither, whence, wherein, whereat, in, out, up, down, within, without, firstly, secondly,* &c.

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* Such words as *where, when, whither*, &c., are as unquestionably adverbs when used with a connective force, as they are when used interrogatively, or as are the corresponding words *there, then, thither*, &c. It is a mistake to class them among the conjunctions. It is true that they are *connective* or *conjunctive words*, but so are *Relative Pronouns;* yet nobody calls *who* or *which* a 'Conjunction.'

The so-called test of an adverb, given by some writers, that it is a word which can be moved about to various positions in the sentence, breaks down completely when applied to the Interrogative and Connective adverbs. All these mechanical modes of distinguishing the Parts of Speech are mere nuisances. They hinder the learner from the necessary work of mastering the *functions* of words, and teach him to substitute the show of knowledge for the reality.

† As in such a sentence as: "This was how he did it." In "How did you do it?" or "Tell me how you did it," *how* is a simple *interrogative* adverb.

‡ As in "That was *why* I said so," or "That is the reason *why* I did it."

§ *As* (in early English *also, alse, als;* A.S. *ealswa*) is simply a strengthened form of *so*, 'all so,' *i.e.* 'just so,' 'completely so.' In A.S. and early English *swa* and *so* were used both relatively and demonstratively, as "Swá sone swá heo mihten" = 'as soon as they could' (*Layamon*, 25625); "So sone so" = 'as soon as' (*Ancren Riwle*, 374). *Als* or *as* had the same two functions, and has them still. Thus "He is *as* rich *as* his father" = '*tam* dives est *quam* pater suus." "Thou art me leof also mi fader" (*Layamon*, 3047) is but a step removed from "Thou art dear to me. *All so* [dear], i.e. *just so* [dear] is my father."

As, when used *relatively*, relates to *manner* ("do *as* I tell you"), to *degree* ("as tall *as* his brother"), to *time* ("he arrived *as* we were setting out"), and to the *conditions* of an action or event (see *Syntax*, 'Adverbial Clauses of Condition'). When used *demonstratively* 'as' only relates to *degree*, and therefore can only modify an adjective or adverb. With verbs the full form *also* is used with a modified meaning.

It has been seen (§ 157) that *so* (*swa*) was used to convert an interrogative or demonstrative pronoun into a relative pronoun. *As* was used in a similar manner, thus: "Ther as (=where) this lord was keeper of the selle" (Chaucer, *Prol.* 172). So in Spenser (*F. Q.* iv. 1, 20). "There *whereas* all the plagues and harmes abound." *Whereas* is still used as a relative adverb, referring to the *circumstances under which* something takes place.

A curious use of *as* before the imperative mood is found in Chaucer and other old writers. Thus: "As beth not wroth with me" = 'Pray be not wroth with me,' *i.e.* '*Just in these circumstances* be not wroth with me.'

Those who find it difficult to admit that *as* is a relative *pronoun* (§ 165) may explain some of the phrases in which it occurs on the principle that the *mode* or *manner* in which a thing *is*, may represent some quality by which it is distinguished. Thus "*Sic* sum. Ego hunc esse *aliter* credidi. Ego isti nihilo sum *aliter* ac fui" (Terence, *Phorm.* III. 2, 42). So in German "Ein solcher *wie* er."

3. **Adverbs of Repetition**: *Once*, *twice*, &c.

4. **Adverbs of Manner**: *Well*, *ill*, *badly*, *how*, *however*, *so*, *as*. To this class belong the numerous adverbs formed from adjectives by the suffix **ly**, as *rightly*, *badly*, &c.

5. **Adverbs of Quantity or Degree**: *Very*, *nearly*, *almost*, *quite*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *little*, *less*, *least*, *all*, *half*, *any*, *the* ("*the* more *the* better," &c., see § 270). These are only a particular kind of Adverbs of Manner.

6. **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation**: *Not*, *no*, *nay*, *aye*, *yea*.

7. **Adverbs of Cause and Consequence**: *Therefore*, *wherefore*, *why*, *consequently*.

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.

266. Adverbs are for the most part formed by inflexion, derivation, or composition, from nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

267. Adverbs derived from Nouns.

1. **Adverbial Genitives.***—*Needs* (= *of necessity*), *straightways*, *noways*,† and some others are old genitive cases of nouns. Adverbs of this sort were once more common.

> Some adverbial phrases, as 'Day and night,' 'Summer and winter,' 'one day,' were once genitives. The genitive suffix was sometimes replaced by *of*, as 'of a truth' (A.S. *sōðes*), 'of a morning,' &c.

2. **Adverbial Datives.**—*Whilom* (A.S. *hwilum*) is a dative plural, meaning 'at whiles' ('formerly,' 'on a time'). The adverbs in *-meal* were compounds of the dative plural *maelum*, 'by portions;' as *piecemeal*, *inchmeal*‡ (*Shaks. Temp.* ii. 2), *limbmeal* (*Cymb.* ii. 4). *Ever* and *never* § were once datives singular (*æfre* and *næfre*).

3. **Adverbial Accusatives.**—A numerous class of adverbial phrases (§ 372, 1) consist of a noun (which was originally in the accusative) qualified by an adjective. Several of these have hardened into compound adverbs, as *meantime*, *sometime*, *sometimes*, *alway* (A.S. *ealne weg*), *midway*, *straightway*, *likewise* (= *in like manner*), *yesterday* (A.S. *gestran dæg*), *somewhat*, *meanwhile*.

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* Adverbial genitives were common in Anglo-Saxon, as *sōðes* 'of a truth'; *nihtes*, 'by night'; *dæges*, 'by day' (compare 'of a morning,' &c.); *sylfwilles*, 'of free will,' &c. They sprang out of a peculiar instrumental use of the genitive, as "*Godes þonces*, 'by the will of God'; *wordes and dæde*, 'by word and deed.'

† Some of these are mixed up with compounds of *wise* (Germ. *Weise*). Thus we have *lengthways* and *lengthwise*, *noways* and *nowise*. "Go thy *ways*" contains a genitive adverb, "ðonne rideð ælc his weges," 'then rides each his way' (*King Alf. Tr. of Orosius*).

‡ A superfluous *by* is sometimes placed before these words, as "By inchmeal."

§ *Ever* is sometimes wrongly substituted for *never* in such expressions as "He told never so many lies," "Be they never so many," *i.e.*, 'be they many, so that they were never so many.' In like manner people commonly say, 'Don't do more than you can help,' instead of 'Don't do more than you can't help' (*De Morgan*).

Also nouns in the objective case may be used as adverbs without a qualifying adjective, as 'We journeyed *home*' (or *North*, *South*, &c.).

4. A large class of adverbial adjuncts consist of a **noun preceded by a preposition** (§ 372, 4). Some of these have been welded together into a single word, and so have become **Adverbs.**

Thus with the preposition *on* (weakened to *a**) we get *abed*, *asleep*, *ahead*, *afoot*, *adrift*, *aloft* (= *on lyfte* 'in the air'), *away*, &c. With *by* (weakened to *be*) we get *betimes*, *besides*, *between* (= *by twain*). Similar formations give *forsooth*, *overboard*, *to-day*, *to-morrow*.†

5. A few adverbs are derived from nouns by the suffix *-long* (formerly *linge*, answering to *-lings* in German), as *headlong* (formerly *heedlynge*), *sidelong*, or *sidling*‡ (*sidelinges*). *Darkling* comes from an adjective, as does *flatlong* (='not on the edge') in Shakspeare (*Tempest*). The suffix *lins* is still common in Scotch.

268. Adverbs derived from Adjectives.

The genitive suffix **-s** appears in *else* (i.e. *elles*, the genitive of a root *el* or *al*, meaning *other*), *once*§ (for *ones*, from *one*), *twice* (formerly *twyes*), *thrice* (formerly *thryes* or *thries*), *unawares*, &c. *Much* (as in *much greater* = *greater by much*) and *little* were datives (*miclum*, *lytlum*). Other adverbs were once **accusative cases** of adjectives, as *all*, *enough*, &c.

By prefixing a preposition to an adjective and then dropping the old case-ending, we get such adverbs as *amid* (= A.S. *on middum*), *awry* (= *on wry*), *anon* (= *on ane* = *on one*, i.e. 'at one time,' 'without interval'), *afar* (= *on ferrum*), &c. We still say *in general*, *in vain*, &c. In *inward*, *outward*, &c., we have the adjective *weard* (= Lat. *vergens*, 'inclining') preceded by an *adverb*. These words assumed an *s* at the end at an early period.

269. The common adverbial suffix in Anglo-Saxon was **-e**, the omission of which reduced many adverbs to the same form as the adjectives from which they were derived.‖ Thus, "He smot

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* In some adverbs of this class *a* is a weakened form of *of*, as *adown* (= *of dune* 'off the hill'); *anew* (= 'of new' in Chaucer); *afresh* (= 'of fresh'); *now-a-days* (= 'now-of-days'). Sometimes the *a* represents the French *à*, as in *apace*, *apart*, *apiece*, *agog* (*à gogo*).

† It has been asserted that *to* in these words is a demonstrative root, akin to *that*, but no evidence of this is forthcoming. In Cædmon (*Gen.* 1031) occurs the full phrase "to dæge þissum." So "to þám ærdæge," at daybreak (*Exod.* 198). Grein (iv. p. 540) and Stratmann (*s. v.*) both treat the *to* as a preposition. The point is settled by the fact that in Gothic 'to-morrow' was 'du maurgina,' where *du* is a preposition.

‡ Halliwell (*s. v.*) quotes "Fell downe noseling" (='on to his nose') from *Morte d'Arthur*, ii. 286. The word *groveling* (still used as an adverb by Spenser), formerly *groflynges*, was mistaken for a participle, and the verb *grovel* was made from it (Skeat, *Et. Dict.*). In Chaucer (*Kn. T.* 91) we read "Thei fillen gruf," i.e. they fell face downwards. *Sideling* or *sidling* also gave birth to a verb 'to sidle up to.'

§ *Once* is sometimes treated as a substantive (= *one time*), as *this once*, *for the nonce* (= *for then once*, i.e. 'for that one time'), *at once* (*Koch* ii. p. 309).

‖ In old French there was an adverbial use of adjectives which found its way into English, as in "You play me *false*," 'I *scarce* touched him,' 'That is *quite* true,' '*Exceeding* great and precious promises,' 'Less *winning* soft' (*Par. L.* ii. 478), 'Thou didst it excellent.'

him harde" became "He smote him hard." "His spere sticode faeste" = "His spear stuck fast." It was thus that we got such adverbs as those in the phrases, 'to run *fast*'; '*right* reverend'; 'to talk *like* a fool'; 'to speak *loud*'; 'to sleep *sound*'; 'to come *early*,' &c. In Anglo-Saxon there was a numerous class of adjectives ending in -lic, the adverbs from which ended in lice (= *like* = *ly*), as *biterlic* (*bitterlike* = 'of a bitter sort'), *biterlice* = 'in a bitter sort of way.'* As the adverbial suffix *-e* fell into disuse, the suffix **lice** (= **ly**) came to be treated as an ordinary adverbial suffix, and is appended to Romance as well as to Anglo-Saxon words, as *perfectly*, *divinely*. It is even added to comparatives and superlatives, *formerly*, *firstly*, &c.

Pronominal Adverbs.

270. These are formed from the roots of *he*, *that*, and *who*.

(1.) By the suffix *-re* marking *place*;—*here*, *there*, *where*. These are old locative cases.

(2.) By the suffix *ther*;† – *hither*, *thither*, *whither*.‡

(3.) By the suffix *-n* (A.S. *-ne*, the accusative masculine suffix) : *then* or *than*, *when*.§ (Compare *tum* and *quum* in Latin.)

(4.) By the compound suffix *-nce*, of which *-ce* (= *es*) is the genitive suffix :—*hence*, *thence*, *whence*.‖

(5.) By the Anglo-Saxon *instrumental* inflexion : *the* (= þ*y*) before comparatives, as in "*The* sooner *the* better," *why* = *hwi* or *hwý*, and *how* (A.S. *hú*) is a modified form of *why* (*hwý*). In old English we find the fuller form *forwhy* = *because*.

What? has in old writers the sense of *why?* or *in what degree?* (See note § on § 154.) *Aught* was also used as an adverb, as "Can he *aught* telle a merry tale?" (Chaucer, *Canon's Y. T.* 597).

Thus is the A.S. *thý*s, the instrumental case of *this* (§ 148).

These pronominal adverbs followed the course of the corresponding pro-

(*Tam. Sh.* I. i. 89). *Wondrous* (= *wondrously*) is perhaps another form of the old adverb *wonders*.

It is often a question whether we are dealing with an adverb which has got reduced to the form of an adjective, or with an adjective used as the complement of the predicate, as in "Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast" (*Pope*); "*Slow* and *sure* comes up the golden year" (*Tennyson*). The adverbial suffix *-e* is common in Chaucer. He sometimes combines *-ly* with it, as *softely*, *boldely*.

* *Like* was itself an adverb, as in "Like as a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear Him." Here *like* is repeated in *so*. In "He talks like a fool," *like* is an adverb, and is itself qualified adverbially (§ 372, 4) by '[to] a fool.' (Compare the dative after *similiter* in Latin.)

When adverbs are formed from adjectives in *-le* preceded by a consonant, *e* is cut off and *y* only is added, as *able*, *ably*. *Ly* is not added to adjectives ending in *ly*. *Y* is changed to *i* before *ly*, as in *bodily*, *merrily*, *daily*. Before *-ly ll* is reduced to *l*, as *full*, *ful-ly*.

The *e* of *ue* is elided, as in *truly*.

† This suffix appears in the Latin *ci-tra*, and in *trans* and *tra*. It comes from an Aryan root meaning 'go beyond.' The comparative *-ther*, in fact comes from the same root.

‡ These forms are often replaced by *here*, *there*, and *where* even in the best writers.

§ *Then* and *when* are varieties of the forms *than* and *whan*, which are usual in Chaucer.

‖ The A.S. *heonan* passed through the forms *heonene*, *henne* (Chaucer, *Pard. T.*), *hennes* (*Piers Pl.*), and *hens* (*Lidgate*). Similarly *thence* and *whence*, come from *thanon* and *hwanon* (*whenne* = *whence* in Chaucer, *Cl. T.* 588). *An* or *on* was a suffix denoting 'from.' Thus *norðan* = 'from the north.' Compare the *n* in the Latin *hi-n-c*, *i-n-de*, *u-n-de*.

nouns in their use as interrogative, indefinite, relative, and demonstrative words. Those derived from *who* form compounds with *some*, *any*, and *ever*, as *somewhere*, *anyhow*, &c. *The* (= þȳ) is both relative and demonstrative.

271. Many adverbs are identical in form with prepositions, as *by* ('he rode by'), *on* ('come on'), *off* ('be off'). *From*, as an adverb, survives in *to and fro*. The adverbial use is the older. These adverbs combine with the pronominal adverbs, and form the compounds *herein*, *thereby*, *whereat*, &c.

There is also a numerous class of adverbs (mostly compounds) which in Anglo-Saxon ended in *-an* (= 'from,' see note § on § 270), as *out* (*útan*), *up* (*úpan*), *before* (*biforan*), *without* (*wiðútan*), &c. Most of these also appear as prepositions.

Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation.

272. The affirmative particle *ay** or *aye* is the same as the A.S. *á* = 'ever' (*For aye = for ever*). *Yea* (A.S. *gea*) is of the same origin as the German *ja*.† *Yes* (A.S. *gese*) is a compound of *yea* or *ye* and the old subjunctive verb *si* or *sie* 'be it' (*Mätzner* i. 446). In A.S. there was a corresponding negative *nese* = 'be it not.'

The old English negative was **ne**, put before the verb, while **not** is put after it, when the verb is finite. *Not* or *nat* (as in Chaucer) is a shortened form of *nought* or *naught* (*i.e. ne-á-wiht = n-ever a thing*), and consequently is a strengthened negative ‡ meaning 'in no degree,' or 'in no respect.' It was at first used to strengthen a previous negative,§ just as Chaucer and other writers use *nothing* ("Nothing ne knew he that it was Arcite," *C.T.* 1521).

No and *nay* are only varieties of *ná* (i.e. *ne-á*) = *never*. *No* is now ‖ used before comparative adverbs and adjectives, as *no further*, *no bigger*, and as the absolute negative, as "Did you speak? No." It must not be confounded with *no*, the shortened form of *none*.

Ay ¶ or *aye* and *nay* (= *ever* and *never*), modify a verb understood. Thus "Is this true? *Ay* sir," is at full length. "Is this true? *Ay* (i.e. *ever*) this is true." *Yes* is not an adverb, but an adverb and verb in one word.

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* *Ay* is in Gothic *aiw*, from *aiws* = an age. It has the same root as αἰών, *aevum*, αἰεί.

† From a demonstrative root which also appears in *yet* and the Latin *jam*.

‡ In A.S. the parts are found separate, as "He ne meahte wiht gefeohtan," 'He could not fight' (*Beowulf*). In '*Not a bit*,' '*Not a jot*,' we have the negative doubly strengthened. *A bit*, *a jot*, *a straw* are adverbial phrases of 'measure.' In 'Not a whit' the word *whit* is contained twice. The curious use of 'devil,' or 'the devil,' for a strong negative, as "The devil a bird have I seen" (*Fielding*), "The devil they are" (*Sheridan*), i.e. 'Surely they are *not*,' is found also in modern Low German, as "He hett den düwel Geld" ('he has *the devil* money'), *i.e.* 'he has no money at all.'

§ In old English negatives were strengthened, not neutralized, by repetition: *e.g.* 'Ne geseah nǽfre nân man God" (*John* i. 18) 'No man hath not never seen God.' The use and position of *not* arose from the omission of the negative *ne*. Thus "Heo nefden noht ane moder (*Layamon* i. 10) = "They *ne* had *not*," &c., became "They had not," &c. In old English *ne-ne* = *neither-nor*.

‖ In Chaucer we still get *namore* for *no more*.

¶ *Ay* or *aye* was written *i* in the older writers. (See *Rom. and J.* iii. 2.)

Adverbs are sometimes used after prepositions, so as to serve as compendious expressions for a qualified substantive, as "I have heard that before *now*;" "He has changed since *then*." *Now* is equivalent to "the time *now* being;" *then* to "the time *then* being."

273. It has been seen that adverbs are for the most part cases or modifications of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, or combinations of these with prepositions, which through being restricted to some definite use have 'hardened' into a separate group or 'Part of Speech.' While the case retains its ordinary functions in full, or the preposition is distinct from the word governed by it, we get what may be termed an 'adverbial adjunct'; but if the meaning of the case is restricted or lost,* or the preposition or adjective has been welded into one word with the noun that follows it, the result is an adverb.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

274. Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison.

The **comparative degree** of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that of two actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses the other with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are both marked, but in different degrees. Thus, "John reads *ill*, but Thomas reads *worse*"; "I was but *little* prepared, but he was *less* prepared."

The **superlative degree** of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that out of several actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses all the rest with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are all marked, but in different degrees; as, "Of all these boys, William writes *best*"; "John was less cautious than I, but Thomas was the *least* cautious of the three."

275. The suffixes for comparison are now *-er* and *-est*. In Anglo-Saxon they were *-or* and *-ost*, which were appended to adverbs in *-e* and *-lice*, the final *e* of which was struck off. In modern English adverbs in *-er* and *-est* are seldom formed except from those adverbs which are the same in form as the corresponding adjectives, as *hard, harder, hardest; long, longer, longest; fast, faster, fastest*, &c. Shakspeare uses *proudlier, truer, easier*, &c. *Seldomer, oftener*, and *oftenest* are still common. The usual mode of indicating comparative and superlative is to prefix the adverbs *more* and *most*, as *wisely, more wisely, most wisely*.

276. The following forms should be noticed.†

* For instance in Latin *ibi* was a dative case of *is*, just as *tibi* is of *tu*; but having been restricted to the designation of *locality*, it has become an adverb. The words '*on foot*' constitute an *adverbial phrase*, but *afoot* is an *adverb*. It was a dim perception of this which led Servius to say "Omne verbum, quum desinit esse quod est, migrat in adverbium," *i.e.* 'Every word, when it ceases to be what it is, betakes itself among the adverbs.' It has been sarcastically remarked that "When a man gets hold of a word that he does not know what to do with, he calls it an Adverb." The Stoics also, in a half jocular way, called the Adverb 'the *Panaektes*' (i.e. 'the all-receiver').

† Compare § 115 and the notes.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
well	better	best
evil (*contr.* ill)	worse	worst
much	more	most
nigh *or* near	nearer	next
forth	further	furthest

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
far	farther	farthest
———	[ere]*	erst
late	later	last
[*adj.* rathe]†	rather	———

The comparatives *nether* (from *be-neath*), *upper*, *inner*, *outer*, or *utter*, *hinder* (*be-hind*), are used only as adjectives. Respecting the superlative forms, see § 116.

PREPOSITION.

277. Prepositions ‡ are words placed before nouns or pronouns, by means of which we show the relation in which things, and their actions and attributes, stand to other things.§ In "I saw a cloud in the sky," *in* is a preposition, and marks the relation (of place) in which the *cloud* stands to the *sky*. In "Tom peeped through the keyhole," *through* denotes the relation (of movement from one side to the other) of the *act of peeping* to the *keyhole*.‖ In "He is fond of music," *of* denotes the relation of the attribute *fond* to *music*. The noun or pronoun which follows a preposition is in the objective case, and is said to be governed by the preposition.¶

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* *Ere* is now a preposition and a conjunction, but not an adverb. In A.S. *ær* was an adverb as well (*Grein* iii. p. 69). It has lost its comparative suffix (see note * on § 115). The corresponding word *air* in Gothic was of the positive degree. The comparatives *ærra* (adj.) and *æror* (adv.) in A.S. imply a positive *ær*. *Early* = *ere-like*. *Or* is another form of *ere* ('Or this' = ere this in Chaucer, *T. and C.* iv. 1). So "*or* ever he come near" (*Acts* xxiii. 15).

† "The rathe (early) primrose" (Milton, *Lycidas*). In the phrase "I had rather," *rather* is an adjective, the complement of the predicate (see § 391). It is quite correct to say "That is rather a clever book" (not "That is a rather clever book"); the force of the phrase is "One would *sooner* say that it is a clever book than that it is not." *Rathest* occurs in Chaucer.

‡ The word *Preposition* (from *prae* 'before' and *positus* 'placed') merely implies "placed before." The term has nothing to do with position in syntax. It relates to *position in the composition of words*. Thus Priscian (xi. 2) says:—Praepositio dicitur quae tam *nomini* quam *verbo* praeponitur." It is, of course, only in *composition* that these words are placed before verbs. (Compare Peile, *Primer of Phil.* p. 119.)

§ All relations are reciprocal. Any mode of *expressing* the relation of A to B implies the relation of B to A. Take "John fell from his horse." It does not matter much whether we say that *from* denotes the relation of 'horse' to 'John's falling,' or of 'John's falling' to 'the horse.' The latter seems the more natural mode of treating these words, and is therefore made the basis of the definition in the text.

‖ Some grammarians maintain the crotchet that a preposition invariably denotes the relation of a *thing* to a *thing*. If the above sentence is consistent with this definition, the difficulty of a camel's going through the eye of a needle is reduced to very manageable proportions. In some grammars a preposition is said to be "a word which shows the relation of one *noun* to another." Does "Jack in the box" imply that the *noun* Jack is in the *noun* box?

¶ This current expression must not be used without a caution. In strictness it is incorrect. The preposition does not *cause* the use of the particular case that follows it. Its original function was to modify or define the vague signification of the case before which it is placed. This is easily seen in Greek, where several of the prepositions are followed by (or rather are placed before) different cases. In Greek the Genitive, Dative, and Accusative cases repre-

278. Things and their actions and attributes can only bear relation to other *things*. Therefore a preposition can only be placed before a word that stands for a *thing*, that is, a *substantive*. It connects the noun or pronoun which follows it with a preceding substantive, verb, or adjective.

ORIGIN OF PREPOSITIONS.

279. The original function of prepositions was to give definiteness to the somewhat vague ideas of the relations of actions to things, which were expressed by the case-endings of nouns. They exhibit three stages of construction. (1.) They were prefixed to the verb, *which they qualified adverbially*, forming in fact a compound with it. (2.) They were detached from the verb, but not prefixed to the noun. At this stage it is often difficult to tell whether we are dealing with a preposition or an adverb. (3.) They acquired the force of prepositions, and were placed before the nouns. The first stage is represented by such a sentence as "Bigstandað me strange geneatas" (*Caedmon*) = 'Stout vassals bystand me'; the second stage by "Again the false paiens the Christen stode he by" (*P. Langtoft*) = 'Against the false pagans the Christians he stood by'; the third by "He stood by the Christians." *

280. From this it is obvious that the Preposition has been developed out of the Adverb, and that its original function was to show the relation between an action or attribute and a thing, by modifying a verb or adjective. The forms of many (such as *between, about, behind, amid*, &c.) show conclusively that they were originally *adverbs* or *adverbial phrases*. It is only through the intervention of an attributive word, which was afterwards dropped, that Prepositions came to show the relation of one *thing* to another. "The book on the table" = "The book lying (or being) on the table," and so on.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

281. Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes :—

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sented respectively (in a somewhat vague form) the ideas of *motion from*, *position at*, and *motion to*. Take the preposition παρά as an example. It denoted the idea of '*alongside of*.' Put it before the above three cases in turn, and we get the more definite ideas—1. 'from alongside of'; 2. 'in a position alongside of'; 3. 'to a position alongside of.' A moment's reflection is enough to show that παρά could not *of itself* convey such opposite meanings as 'from' and 'to,' and so *cause* different cases to be used after it. It does no more than *define* the 'from' and the 'to' which are denoted by the case-endings. Similarly πρός indicated '*front of*.' Accordingly with the same three cases we get the meanings—1. 'from the front of'; 2. 'in front of'; 3. 'to the front of.' The Latin *apud* is the same word as the Greek ἀπό, and *ab* is a shortened form of it. The difference of meaning does not really reside in the preposition itself, but has sprung out of the different cases before which it is placed. From the kind of notion that they express, some prepositions (as *ex*, *de*, *per*, &c.) could only define some *one* case.

It will easily be seen how, as case-endings dropped out of use, prepositions became more and more important, and more definite in their signification. In English the primary space-relations of 'motion from,' 'rest at,' and 'motion to' have ceased to be marked at all by case-endings; they are expressed by prepositions and verbs. Some prepositions are used with relation to *movement* only, as *into, through, towards;* the greater number are used with reference to *motion* or *rest* indifferently. Compare "He sticks to his work," "He ran to the door," "He works at home," "The dog flew at him," &c.

* The student of Greek will have no difficulty in tracing these three stages.

(1.) Simple Prepositions.

at *	forth	of *or* off	till ‖
by	from ‡	on	to
for †	in	through §	up
			with

(2.) Prepositions derived from Adverbs.

a. **By a comparative suffix.**

after ¶	over **	under ††

b. **By prefixing a preposition to an adverb.**

abaft (A.S. á-be-æftan)	beyond (A.S. be-geondan)
above (A.S. á-be-úfan)	but (A.S. bútan = be-útan)
about (A.S. á-be-útan)	throughout
afore (A.S. on-foran *or* ætforan)	underneath (A.S. under-neoðan)
before (A.S. bi-foran)	within (A.S. wið-innan)
behind (A.S. be-hindan)	without (A.S. wið-útan)
beneath (A.S. be-neoðan)	

(3.) Prepositions formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun or an adjective used substantively.

aboard (= on board)	around *or* round
across (from Fr. *croix*)	aslant
adown ‡‡ *or* down (A.S. of dúne)	astride
against §§ (A.S. on-gegn, ongeán)	athwart (AS. on þweorh *crooked*)
along (A.S. andlang ‖‖)	below
amid *or* amidst (A.S. on middum)	beside *or* besides (= 'by side')
among *or* amongst (A.S. on-gemang ¶¶)	between *** (= 'by two')
	betwixt

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* *At* and the Latin *ad* have the same origin.

† *For*, *fore*, and *forth* have the same root as the Latin and Greek *pro* (see Grimm's law). *Forth* is found as a preposition in Shakspeare. (See *Schmidt's Lexicon.*)

‡ The form *fra* or *fro* is found in Ormin, Wycliffe, &c. Now an adverb, in '*to and fro.*'

§ Connected with the Gothic *thairko*, 'a hole.'

‖ *Till*, connected with an old noun *til* (German *Ziel*), 'a fixed point, goal, or boundary,' is used of place as well as time by Chaucer, &c. Even in Spenser we read "He hastened them *untill*" (*F. Q.* I. 11, 4). It is of Scandinavian origin (*Ettmüller Lex.* p. 519). Douglas uses *til* for *to* in the infinitive.

¶ *After* is probably made up of *af* (meaning 'off' in Gothic, and connected with the Latin *ab* and the Greek ἀπό) and the comparative suffix *-ter* (= *ther*, § 108). '*After*,' therefore, means 'further off,' corresponding in form and meaning to the Greek ἀπωτέρω (Fick, *Vergl. W.* i. 17; Skeat, *Et. Dict. s. v.*). *Aft* is an abbreviation of *after*. *Af* and *of* are varieties of the same root.

** *Over* is a comparative from the root *ov* = A.S. *uf* (in *úf-an*, German *oben*). *Up*, ὑπό and *sub* are varieties of the same root (Fick, *V. W.* iii. 34). *Sub* in composition often means 'up from underneath,' as in 'Terra submittit flores' (*sends up* flowers). Compare *sufferre*, &c.

†† *Under* (Germ. *unter*, Latin *inter*, Sansk. *antar*), from the demonstrative root *an* (see § 219, note) and the comparative suffix *tar*, *ter*, or *ther*.

‡‡ Literally 'off the hill.' *Dun* = *hill.*

§§ In *against*, *amidst*, and *amongst* the *s* is the genitive suffix (§ 267, 1); the *t* is a phonetic offgrowth from the *s*. *Again* is the older form. Chaucer uses *amiddes* and *amonges.*

‖‖ From the A.S. particle *and* = 'opposite,' or 'in presence of' (Latin *ante*, Gr. ἀντί), which we have in *an-swer*. 'Andlang' means 'over against in length.' In A.S. it was followed by the genitive, like the corresponding German word *entlang.*

¶¶ *Gemang* in A.S. means an assemblage or multitude.

*** *Between* comes from the numeral adjective *tweon* (= Lat. *binus*), a derivative from *twa* or *twi* (= *two*). *Betwih* was formed from the root *twi*. To this was added the adverbial genitive suffix *s* (*betwix*), and subsequently the offgrowth *t*. (Compare note on § 219.) The parts of the compound *betweonum* might be separated. 'Be sæm tweonum' (*by the lakes twain*) = 'between the lakes.'

anent (A.S. on-efen *or* on-emn = 'on a level,' 'over-against')	inside
	outside
	since*

Aloft ('on lyfte' = in the air) and *abreast* are used now and then as prepositions. *Withal* (i.e. '*with all*' = 'into the bargain') is sometimes used as a preposition, and placed at the end of the sentence.

(4.) **Prepositions formed by prefixing an adverbial particle to a preposition.**

into	until†	upon	without
onto	unto	within	

(5.) From the adjective *weard* (= Lat. *vergens*, and connected with *verto*), preceded by the adverb *to*,§ we get in Anglo-Saxon the adjective *toweard* ('approaching, future').‡ *Toweard* and *towardes* were used as adverbs, and then acquired the force of prepositions.§

282. In Anglo-Saxon passive and other verbs might be used impersonally without a subject of any kind, simply to affirm that *an action takes place*. Participles are often employed absolutely and impersonally in exactly the same manner, as "Speaking generally, this will be found true"; "Barring accidents, we shall arrive to-morrow." Participles thus used have sometimes acquired the force of prepositions, as "He asked me *concerning* my health"; "He is undecided *respecting* his movements." In some cases these active participles have supplanted passive participles which qualified the noun. Thus, "considering his conduct" was "his conduct considered," just as we still say, "All things considered." *Notwithstanding*, *pending*, and *during* are participles qualifying the noun that follows in the nominative absolute. *Save* (Fr. *sauf*) and *except* are of French origin, and are remnants of Latin ablatives absolute. In Chaucer *out-taken* is found for *except*. In Shakspeare we still find *excepted*; "Always excepted my dear Claudio." As both the nominative and the objective case are used in the absolute construction (§ 372, 5), *save he* and *save him* are both allowable. *During*, *save*, and *except* are now usually regarded as prepositions. The adjectives *near*, *nearer*, and *next* (§ 115) were used first as adverbs and then as prepositions. Respecting *ere* see note † on § 276. *Past* was at first an attributive participle, forming an objective absolute with a noun, "past the house" = 'the house being passed.' These quasi-prepositions are usually of French origin.

Relations indicated by Prepositions.

283. The principal **relations** which prepositions indicate are those of **place, time,** and **causality.**‖

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* Since is a short form of *sithens* or *sithence*, made with the adverbial genitive suffix from *sithen*, a form of Scandinavian origin, based upon the adverb and preposition *sith*. The A.S *siððan* is a compound of *sið* and the dative þæm.

† From the Gothic particle *und* 'all the way' or 'all the time' (equivalent to the German *bis*), which in A.S. dropped the *n* (compare *tooth* and *goose*) and appeared as *oð*. *Until* = *und-til*, *unto* = *und-to*, *i.e.* 'all the way to.'

‡ Hence 'inclining to,' 'favourable.' The opposite of this is *froward* (= *from-ward*), and the negative of it is *untoward*.

§ Phrases like 'on this side the river,' 'on board ship,' distinctly show us adverbial phrases acquiring the force of prepositions.

‖ By *causality* is meant the *cause*, *reason*, or *purpose* of any action or event. When we say 'full of water,' *of* marks the *cause* of the fulness.

Prepositions were first used to express relation in *space*, then they were applied to relation in *time*, and lastly were used metaphorically to mark relations of *causality* or *modality*.*

284. At, with relation to space, marks (1) the point to which a movement is directed (as 'The dog sprang *at* him'; 'Look *at* this'), or the point reached in some progressive movement (as 'We have arrived *at* our destination'); (2) the locality of an action or thing (as in 'We dined *at* the hotel'; 'The man *at* the helm'). Thence it comes to denote the *circumstances* in which a person is, or in which an action takes place (as 'We were present *at* the battle'; '*at* enmity'; '*at* leisure'; '*at* full speed'; 'to play *at* cards'), or the *occasion* or *determining circumstances* of an action (as 'He came *at* my call'; 'We rejoice *at* your success'; 'I am *at* your mercy,' &c.) **At**, as marking a definite point in a progression of any kind, defines *quantity* and *value*, as '*At* a great price'; 'The expense is estimated *at* three millions'; '*At* the best'; '*At* least,' &c. **At** also fixes an action to a *point of time*, as '*At* noon'; '*At* this season'; '*At* any time.'

In early English **at** also marked the *starting point* of a movement or action, as "Gé nimað Benjamin æt mé" = 'ye take B. *from* me' (*Gen.* xlii. 36). Vestiges of this use are still found in "To receive *at* the hands of," &c.

By means (1) 'Alongside of,' or 'close to,' in connection either with rest or with motion, as 'Sit *by* me'; 'The path runs *by* the river'; 'We went *by* your house'; 'He lives *by* himself,' *i.e.*, 'with himself as his only neighbour'; 'To put a thing *by*' is to put it somewhere *near*, or *by our side*, not *in front*; hence, *out of the way*, just as we say, 'to put *aside*.' A thing happens *by the way* when it happens *beside the way*, that is, not as a part of the main proceeding. If a man swears *by* an altar or a relic, he places his hand on it, or goes close up to it. *To come by a thing* is to get close up to it, so as to be able to get possession of it. (2) If I arrive *by* ten o'clock, the time of my arrival is *close to*, or *just before*, ten o'clock. *By* and *by* properly denotes a time *close to* the present.† 'Day *by* day,' implies that one day is *next to* the other without interval. (3) It is natural to seek the doer or instrument of an act in close neighbourhood to the locality of the action. Hence *by* came to denote the agent‡ or instrument, as "Abel was killed *by* Cain"; 'They were stifled *by* the smoke.' "He is older *by* two years," implies that the excess of age is caused by two years. One thing is put *beside* another to measure or compare it; hence such phrases as 'to sell *by* the yard,' 'to drink *by* the gallon,' '*by* (=in accordance with) your advice.'

In a more general sense **by** marks any concomitant circumstance, as in 'by turns'; 'by fits and starts'; 'by moonlight'; 'they came by twos and threes.' In old English 'to know nothing *by*' meant 'to know nothing *about* or *against*,' as in "I know nothing *by* myself" (I. *Corinth.* iv. 4); "How say you *by* the French lord?" (*M. of V.* I. 2).

But (A.S. *bútan* or *búton*, in early English *buten*, *bute*, *bouten*, *boute*, *but* or *bot*) is a compound of *be*, *bi* or *by* and *útan* 'outside' (*by-out*). It means literally 'on the outside of,' and thence 'without' or 'except.' It is quite common as a preposition in A.S. and in early English and Scottish writers.§

* Compare for example "He was pierced through the heart"; "It blossoms through the year"; "Sanctify them through thy truth."

† Chaucer speaks of "two yonge knightes ligging *by and by*, i.e. 'side by side.'

‡ Compare the provincialism 'that's all *along of* you.'

§ *E.g.* as "Ealle bútan ánum" = 'all but one' (*Beow.* 705); "Bútan nettum huntian ic mæg" = 'I can hunt without nets' (*Aelf. Coll.*); "But spot or falt" (*Douglas*). "Touch not the cat *but* a glove" (*Motto* quoted in Jamieson's Scotch Dic.).

See Stratmann (*s.v.*) and Mätzner (*Wört s.v.*). It is still used as a preposition (meaning 'except' or 'leaving out'), as in 'All *but* one'; 'The last *but* one'; "Take any form *but* that." It is often followed by the simple infinitive, as "He did nothing *but* (= except) laugh." In the older writers the gerund was used after it, as "But being charged, we will be still by land" (*Ant. and Cl.* iv. 2, 1), i.e. 'leaving out the case of being attacked, we will make no movement by land.' For the way in which the preposition *but* developed into the conjunction, see § 293.

In formation and meaning *but* (=*by out*) is closely analogous to *with-out*, which also was by turns adverb, preposition and conjunction. (*See Conjunction.*) In course of time the prepositional functions were chiefly monopolized by *without*, the conjunctive functions by *but*.*

About (A..S *ábútan*, i.e. *á-be-útan* = *on-by-out*) means 'just on the outside of,' and hence *very near to* either in space or in time, without any idea of *encompassing*. Thus "Have you any money *about* you?"; "It is *about* (i.e. very near to) four o'clock." 'To set *about* a business' is 'to set [oneself] *close to* it, so that there may be no delay in beginning it. 'I was *about* to observe' means 'I was *close to* observing.' Being frequently coupled with *round* ('*round about*') it acquired the secondary sense of 'on all sides of,' as "Set bounds *about* the mount"; and with a figurative extension 'He told me all *about* it,' 'I will see *about* that.'

For in Anglo-Saxon means '*in front of*' '*before*,' with reference both to place and to time. (Compare the Latin *pro*.) From the idea of *standing in front of* came first that of *defending*, as when we say 'To fight *for* one's king.' This easily passes into the idea of *on behalf of*, or *to the advantage of*, as "I pleaded *for* him in vain"; "All this was done *for* you." *For* then came to denote *representing*, or *taking the place of* (compare ἀντί and *pro*). Thus an advocate appears *for* his client, or one person is 'taken *for* another'; or is 'responsible *for* another.' This idea of *substitution* or *exchange* often occurs, as in 'To die *for*'; 'To exchange, barter, or sell *for*'; 'Eye *for* eye.' *Exchange* passes into the sense of *requital*, as 'He was punished *for* the crime,' and by a further extension into that of the *ground*, *cause*, or *purpose* of an action. This idea underlies such phrases as 'grateful *for*,' 'sorry *for*,' 'to seek *for*,' 'to wait *for*.' 'He did this *for* love of me' means 'in *presence of* his love of me as a *stimulating motive*.' 'In presence of' may pass into the meaning 'in spite of' (just as when we say "He persevered *in the face* of all obstacles"), as in "For all his wealth, he is unhappy." One thing may be placed before another to stop it, and so *for* came to mark *hindrance* or *prevention*, as "He dide (i.e. put) on that an habergeoun *for* percinge of his herte," i.e. '*to prevent* the piercing of his heart.' (Chaucer, *Sir Thopas*.)

In and **on** are varieties of the same root. (See *Skeat, Et. Dict.*) From marking the *locality* of what is contained in something else, **in** came to be used with reference to *surrounding circumstances*, as '*in* difficulties,' '*in* hope,' '*in* liquor,' '*in* motion.' The *sphere* of a movement or activity suggests the idea of the *material* or the *means* employed; thus we get 'wrought *in* silver,' 'written *in* blood,' 'to pay *in* coin.' **In** is often used in the sense of *into*, as "He put his hand *in* his pocket"; "He dipped his pen *in* the ink." **On** is common in A.S. in the sense of *in*, as "on heofenum" = 'in heaven'; "His lof byð on mínum múðe" = 'his praise shall be *in* my mouth.' We

* It is necessary to warn the unwary that the *be* with which this word is compounded has nothing whatever to do with the verb 'be.'

still say '*on* hand,' '*on* a journey,' '*on* Monday,' '*on* fire' (compare '*in* flames'). **On** gradually came to denote *superposition*, as "He lay *on* the bed," and thence to denote the ground of an action, as in '*on* condition,' '*on* account of,' 'he prides himself *on* his skill.' **In** is sometimes used in this sense, as 'to rejoice *in*,' 'to be offended *in*' (*Matt.* xi. 6).

Of and **off** were originally only various modes of writing and pronouncing the same word. *Off* is now more commonly used as an adverb, *of* more commonly as a preposition. In early English *of* answers for both varieties. It indicates *movement* or *separation from* something, or shows that something is the starting-point from which an action proceeds, as in 'Get *off* that chair'; 'A long way *off* the mark'; 'To do a thing *off* hand' (i.e. as though the doing came *direct from the hand*); 'He went out *of** the room'; 'He comes *of* a good stock'; 'To buy *of* a person'; '*Of* a child,' *i.e.* '*from* his childhood.' A vessel is *off* the coast when it is at a short distance *from* it. 'He stood within a yard *of* the fire' means "He stood *off* (= away from) the fire within the distance of a yard"; 'To stop short *of* a point' is 'to stop a short distance from it'; 'That is very good *of you*' means 'as *proceeding from you*.' The idea of *separation* underlies all such phrases as 'to cure *of*'; 'to cleanse *of*'; 'to deprive *of*'†; 'free *of*'; 'destitute *of*.' 'To beware *of*' implies 'keeping aloof from.' If a thing 'smells *of* musk,' or 'tastes *of* onions,' the smell or taste comes *from* the musk or onions.

That which comes from, or is taken from a thing, was a part of it, or belonged to it in some way. Hence spring two meanings. 1. *Of* is used in the *partitive* sense, as in 'A piece *of* cheese'; 'One *of* the men'; 'To partake *of*,' &c. 2. *Of* denotes *possession*, as in 'The house *of* my father,' or marks that an attribute *pertains to* something, as in 'The brightness *of* the sun.' It thus becomes the general equivalent of the genitive or possessive.

A thing is made *from* the material of which it is composed. Hence we say, 'A bar *of* iron'; 'A book *of* poetry'; 'A pint *of* beer.' 'He made a fool *of* me' (*i.e.* as though I were the raw material of the product). From denoting the *material* of a thing, *of* passes on to denote any characteristic of a thing, as in 'A man *of* high rank'; 'A person *of* great wealth.'

A man's works or productions come *from* him. Hence we speak of 'a play *of* Shakspeare'; 'a symphony *of* Beethoven,' &c. *Of* also marks the *source from which* an action proceeds. Hence it denotes the agent or means, as 'He was led *of* the Spirit'; 'Tempted *of* the devil'; 'The observed *of* all observers,' *i.e.*, 'The person observed *by* all observers.' Formerly *from* (*fram*), like *von* in German, marked the agent, or source whence the action proceeds, as in "wǽron fram him gefullode" = 'were baptized by (from) him' (*Mark* i. 5).

A result springs *from* a cause. Hence *of* marks the *cause* or *ground* of an action or feeling, as in 'To die *of* a broken heart'; 'To do a thing *of* one's free will,' '*of* right,' or '*of* necessity'; 'To be sick *of* a fever.' 'The love *of* money' is 'the love excited by money,' and so 'directed towards it.' So 'Fond *of*'; 'weary *of*'; 'guilty *of*'; 'conscious *of*,' &c., denote emotions *caused by*, or *springing from* something.

'I heard *of* his death' marks that 'his death' was the starting-point of the news that came to me. Hence *of* comes to mean *concerning* or *respecting* in a variety of phrases, as in 'to think *of*,' 'to accuse *of*.' If we 'speak of

* In old writers *out of* = *without*, as in "Neither can anything please God if it be done *out of* charity." We still say "*out of* breath" (i.e. *without* breath), '*out of* one's senses.'
† In A.S. verbs of this sort had the genitive after them.

Cicero,' Cicero is the starting-point of our speech. 'A copy *of* a thing' is 'a copy taken *from* it.' 'He lived there upwards *of* a year,' means 'during a certain period reckoned *from* the end of the year.'

Of is identical in root with the Gothic *af*, Latin *ab*, and Greek ἀπό. In A.S. the two prepositions *on* and *off* had a wide range of application.

To (as an adverb usually spelt **too**) indicates *movement* or *extension* towards some point in *space* or *time* (as "He went *to* the door"; "It goes on from day *to* day"), or the *proximity* which is the result of the movement, as in 'close to,' or (of time) 'to-day,' 'to-night.' See § 267, 4. **To** then came to mark the direction of an action or feeling towards an object (as in "To tell *to*"; "inclined *to*," &c.). It also marks approach or conformity to a certain standard (as in "equal *to*"; "like *to*"; "brave *to* excess"; "is that *to* your liking?"). It denotes the end or result of some change, as 'turned *to* stone.' One thing is put *to* another for comparison, or as a stake, hence such phrases as "They *to* him are angels"; 'ten *to* one'; "My estate *to* your ring."

To also marks the *end* or *purpose* of an action, as in many uses of the gerundial infinitive, "He came *to* see me," &c. (§ 196), and in such phrases as "They came *to* dinner"; "To have *to* wife," &c. It is also used to mark what is in any way *affected* by an action, quality, or relation, as in "happen *to*"; "a friend *to* the poor"; "a prey *to* anxiety;" "hateful *to* me," &c. *To* has largely replaced the old dative.

The adverb *too* is the same word, and means 'in addition.' "Give him a shilling and a loaf *too*" means 'give him a loaf in addition to the shilling.' "That is *too* bad" means 'that is bad *in an additional degree*, or beyond what is bad in a usual degree.'

In the Northern dialect *til* or *till* was used for *to* (§ 281). So in Chaucer, "Til a grove than stalketh Palamon" (*Kn. T.* 620). This word is now only a conjunction. *Intil* (=*into*) has vanished; *until* is restricted to time.

With is a shortened form of the Anglo-Saxon adverb *wiðer*, formed by the comparative suffix *ther* (§ 108, note), from an ancient root *wi* or *vi*, denoting *separation*. The ancient meaning of *with* (*wið*) is *from*,* which we still preserve in *withhold*, and *withdraw*, and in the phrases 'to part *with*,' 'to dispense *with*,' 'to differ *with*,' &c. The notion of *separation* passed into that of *opposition*, from which *with* derived its ordinary Anglo-Saxon meaning of 'against,' still maintained in '*withstand*,' '*to be angry with*'; "weigh oath *with* oath" (*i.e.* 'weigh oath against oath,' &c. *Opposition* implies *proximity*, *proximity* suggests *association*, and so *with* came by its modern sense of 'Come *with* us.' In this sense it denotes *attendant circumstances* (as "I will come *with* pleasure"). Among the attendant circumstances of an action is the instrument † with which it is performed. Hence another of the common meanings of *with*. *With* has supplanted the old preposition *mid* (= German *mit*).

Most of the above words are adverbs as well as prepositions. When they are prepositions there is always a substantive, expressed or understood, which they govern. In "He laid one book above the other," *above* is a preposition. In "One was below, the others above," *below* and *above* are adverbs.

The Latin preposition **per** (*throughout*) has been adopted with the *distributive* sense, which it had in late Latin, as 'A pound *per* day'; 'Three *per* cent,' &c. It was in part confused with *pour* (from *pro*).

* "He gedælde lif wið líce," 'He separated life from [the] body' (*Beowulf*, 733).
† In Chaucer *with* marks the *agent*, as "sleyn with (= by) cursed Jewes" (*Pr. T.* 1875).

Sans and *mangre* are now obsolete

There is no sufficient reason for giving the name 'compound prepositions' to such phrases as 'by means of,' 'in addition to,' &c. A clear account can be given of the syntax of each member of the phrase. But in some instances (as '*despite*,' '*spite of*,' &c.) the loss of an essential preposition compels us to treat the residuum as a phrase equivalent to a reposition.

CONJUNCTION.

285. Conjunctions are so called because they **join** words and sentences **together** (Lat. *con* = 'together,' *jungo* = 'I join'); but a word is not necessarily a conjunction because it does this. *Who*, *which*, and *that* are connective words which are pronouns. *When*, *where*, *as*, &c., are connective words which are adverbs.

Definition.—Conjunctions are connective words, which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification.

Prepositions show the relation of one *notion* to another. Conjunctions show the relation of one *thought* to another. Hence conjunctions for the most part* join one sentence to another.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

286. Conjunctions are of two kinds—**1. Co-ordinative Conjunctions; 2. Subordinative Conjunctions.**

287. Co-ordinative Conjunctions are those which unite either co-ordinate clauses (*i.e.* clauses of which neither is dependent on the other, or enters into its construction), or words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence. They may be subdivided according to their meaning into—

1. **Simple Conjunctions:**—*and*, *both*.
2. **The Adversative† or exceptive conjunction:**—*but*.
3. **Alternative Conjunctions:**—*either—or*; *neither—nor*; *whether—or*.

* The single exception is the conjunction *and*, which, besides uniting one sentence to another, may unite words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence, as in "Two and three make five," where *two* and *three* stand in the same relation to the verb *make*; "Tom sat between John and James," where *John* and *James* are in the same relation to *sat between*. A plural suffix may answer much the same purpose. There is no essential difference between "Tom sat between John and James,' and "Tom sat between the two brothers." *And* lends itself the more readily to this use, as it was originally a preposition meaning 'along with' (§ 287). It is however impossible now to treat *and* as a preposition. We cannot say 'Tom *and me* took a walk.' Some grammarians will have it that in all such cases two co-ordinate sentences are *contracted* into one, but to say "Two make five and three make five,' or 'Tom sat between John and Tom sat between James,' is sheer nonsense, and it is quite inadmissible to substitute some other verb for *make*, or some other preposition for *between*. Grammatical analysis has to deal with the expressions before us, not with something else that we are told to substitute in their place.

† The *Disjunctive Conjunction* of many grammars (a *joining* word which *disjoins*) is a choice specimen of absurdity.

And (of the same origin as the German *und*, Icelandic *enda*, Latin *ante*, and Greek ἀντί) is sometimes a preposition in A.S. meaning 'in presence of,' or 'along with.'* From the sense of 'in presence of' *and* passed into that of *against* (compare *with* § 284), and appears in *answer* (*andswarian*), *along* (*and-lang*) and various other compounds in A.S.

From being a preposition, *and* developed (in the way explained further on) into a conjunction, with two different senses. 1. It assumed the ordinary copulative sense. 2. It was a hypothetical conjunction,† the main assertion of the complex sentence being made, as it were, *in the presence of* the hypothesis. As thus used it is often shortened to *an*, and sometimes followed by *if*, which virtually repeats it (*an if* or *and if*).

Both is only the adjective *both* (§ 95) used with relation to two sentences which are joined by *and*, and so acquiring the force of a conjunction. When placed before two substantives joined by *and*, it may still be regarded as an adjective, as "*Both* John and Henry are here" = "John and Henry are both here."

In old English *and—and* were used for *both—and*, as "*And* I have clarified *and* eft I schal clarifie" (Wycl. *John* xii. 28).

Strictly speaking *both—and* should couple only two notions or thoughts, but good writers sometimes use them to join more than two, as "The God that made *both* sky *and* earth *and* heaven" (*Milton*).

The use of **but** as an adversative conjunction springs out of its use as a subordinative conjunction. This will be discussed further on (§ 290).

Either is the distributive pronoun which stands for *awther* or *other* (§ 174, 2), used with relation to a whole sentence, and so becoming a conjunction.‡ **Or** is a contraction of *other* or *outher*, as *wher* (in Chaucer) is of *whether*. **Neither** and **nor** are compounds of *either* and *or* with *ne*. The correlatives *nor-nor* are sometimes used for *neither-nor*, and are just as correct. *Nor* is only a contraction of *neither* (i.e. *nouther*), and the first *neither* may as well be contracted as the second.§

The use of *whether* as a co-ordinative conjunction is old-fashioned (as "Whether did this man sin or his parents?"). As a subordinative conjunction it is common. The *or* which follows *whether* is a contracted compound of *whether* (see above and § 174).

288. Subordinative Conjunctions are those which unite sentences of which one is in a relation of dependence upon the other, that is to say, *enters into its construction with the force of a substantive or an adverb.*

289. Subordinative Conjunctions may be subdivided into—

1. **The Simple Conjunction of Subordination**:—*that.*
2. **Temporal Conjunctions,** or Conjunctions that express relations of Time:—*after, before, ere, till, while, since, now.*
3. **Causal Conjunctions,** or such as relate to purpose or consequence:—*because, since, as, for, lest, that, whereas.*

* As "*And* heora ordfruman," '*in the presence of* their creator' (*Caedm. Gen.* 13); "emb eahta niht and feówerum," 'about eight nights and (= along with) four' (*Menol.* 211).

† *Enda* was similarly used in Icelandic.

‡ Not of the word *other* which is the equivalent of the Gothic *anthar* (§ 169). The other *either*, which is the modern form of *æghwæther*, is not now used as a conjunction; but in A.S. *æghwæther—ge*, or *æghwæther—and* were used for *both-and*.

§ In early English we find *nother—ne*, or *ne—ne* for *neither—nor*.

4. **Hypothetical** or **Conditional Conjunctions**:—*if*, *an*, *unless*, *except*, *but*, *whether*, &c.
5. **Concessive Conjunctions**:—*though*, *although*, *albeit*.
6. **Alternative Conjunctions**:—*whether—or*.
7. **The Conjunction of Comparison**:—*than*.

290. **That** was originally simply the neuter demonstrative pronoun used as the representative of a sentence to show its grammatical relation to some other sentence. Thus "I know that he said so" is virtually "He said so, I know *that*," or "I know *that*, namely 'he said so';" "That he did it is certain," is virtually "He did it, that is certain," or "*That*, namely 'he did it,' is certain." Subsequently the word lost its demonstrative and representative character, and became a mere sign of *grammatical subordination*, the whole clause, including the *that*, being treated as the equivalent of a substantive. Such a clause may be the subject or object of a verb, as in the preceding examples, or be in apposition to a substantive, as "The notion that such a plan is possible is absurd," or come after a preposition, as "*In* that he himself hath suffered" (*Heb.* ii. 18); "*For* that it is not night" (*Shaksp.*); "It is good for naught *but* that it should be cast out" (*Matt.* v. 13).

The conjunction *that* is closely connected with the transformation of the prepositions **after, before, ere, since, till, until, for, but, without,** into conjunctions. These prepositions were first used as such, followed by an accessory clause beginning with the subordinative particle *that** (as in the examples given above). When this connective particle (or conjunction) is retained, it is better to regard the preceding word *after*, *before*, *for*, &c., as still a preposition. But when *that* is omitted, grammarians generally consider that its connective power has been absorbed by the preceding preposition, and that the latter has consequently become a conjunction. Thus "Before that certain came from James" (*Gal.* ii. 12) consists of a preposition followed by a substantive clause. "Before the cock crow twice" is a subordinate clause in which *before* does duty as a conjunction.

Now sometimes acquires the force of a conjunction in a similar way. If we say "Now that you have finished your work you may go," *now* is an adverb, having the clause that follows in apposition to it. If we say "Now you have finished your work you may go," *now* has absorbed into itself the connective force of the *that*, and become a conjunction.

Whereas was formerly a connective adverb, referring to place† or

* In Anglo-Saxon the syntactical relation of the substantive clause to the preposition was marked by the introduction of a second demonstrative, which was inflected. Thus:—"Ealle þá þing sindon on þínre handa bútan þǽm ánum, þæt þú þíne hand on him ne ástrecce" = 'all things are in thy hand but (= except) *that one*, that thou stretch not thine hand upon him' (*Job* i. 12); "Ic cwime ǽr þám þæt he gǽð" = 'I will come ere *that*, that he goes.' Then the subordinative (indeclinable) þæt was weakened to þe, which attached itself to the preceding demonstrative, so that 'ǽr-þám-þe' (and similar combinations) became a sort of complex conjunction, as "ǽr-þám-þe cocc cráwe" = 'before that [the] cock crow' (*Matt.* xxvi. 34). The þe was sometimes omitted, as "For þám heora ys heofena rice" = 'for that theirs is the kingdom of heaven.'

† In early English *that*, *so*, and *as* were used after *who*, *which*, *when*, *where*, as marks of syntactical subordination. (See Chaucer *passim*.) *Whereas* properly referred to place, as in "There whereas all the plagues and harms abound" (Spenser, *F. Q.* iv. 1, 20). "I held my tongue whereas the rest kept talking," means properly "I held my tongue [in circumstances] *in which* the rest kept talking."

attendant circumstances; but its adverbial force has become forgotten, and it now counts as a conjunction. It is curious that the *notional* part of *when-as* and *whereas* came to be dropped, and the merely *formal* or *relational* part 'as' assumed the meaning of the whole word; thus "I met James *as* (=*when-as*) I was coming hither;" "*As* (=*where-as*) you say so, I must believe it."

Because is merely the compound phrase *by cause*. It was formerly followed by *of*, as "Because of the waters of the flood" (*Gen.* vii. 7; compare "by reason of the fire," *Deut.* v. 5). In Shakspeare, &c., *because* is often followed by *that*, which in fact introduces a substantive clause in apposition to the noun *cause*. On the omission of the connective *that*, *because* hardened into a conjunction.*

291. If (A.S. *gif*) is cognate with the Norse *ef*, German *ob*, Dutch *of*, and Gothic *ibai* and *jabai*, and is connected with an old noun *iba* or *eba* † = 'condition' or 'stipulation' (*Fick* iii. p. 20). It thus answers exactly to the phrase "on condition that." The conditional particle *and* has already been treated of (§ 287).

A question is one way of putting a hypothesis, as "Is any afflicted? Let him pray." In this way *whether-or* came to be used as equivalent to *either if—or* [*if*] as "I will go whether you will or not," *i.e.* "I will go *either if* you will *or if* you will not."

Lest comes from the Anglo-Saxon expression "þỹ læs þe" = Lat. *quominus* = '[that] by so much less' or 'that the less,' where the indeclinable 'þe' is the mark of syntactical subordination, and so converts the phrase into a subordinative conjunction.‡ Although in reality essential to the construction, 'þỹ' (the instrumental case of 'þæt') came to be omitted, and *læs þe* or *læs* became *lest*, either by the blending of *þe* with *læs*, or by the phonetic offgrowth of *t* § (Skeat, *s.v.*).

292. Unless is a compound of *on* and the comparative *less*. In early English we find the fuller expression 'upon lesse than.'‖ The phrase is an imitation of the French *à moins que*. "He will be ruined unless you help him" means "He will be ruined if matters stop *at less* than your helping him," *i.e.* "stop short of your helping him."

293. But.—The idea involved in the word *unless* was expressed in A.S. by **bútan** (see *but*), which was developed from a preposition into a conjunction (like *after*, *without*, &c.) in the way already described (§ 290). The omission of the *that* which made what followed into a substantive clause governed by a preposition, left such constructions as "Næbbe ge líf on eów bútan ge etan mín flǽsc" = 'ye have not

* The old word *forwhy* (= 'for the reason that') is now obsolete. It was not interrogative, as Cowper (*John Gilpin*) mistakenly makes it.

† Many have attempted to connect *gif* (*if*) with the verb *give*, as though it were an imperative mood of it, the Scotch *gin* (= *gi'en* = *given*) being the passive participle. But the word must not be separated from the related forms in cognate languages, and none of these have the slightest connection with any verb meaning 'give.'

‡ Thus "[God commanded us that we should not eat] þỹ læs þe we swulton" = 'that the less (*quominus*) we should die.'

§ Koch (ii. p. 424) quoting 'þe læste þe' (from the *Sax. Chron.* 694, F) seems inclined to regard *lest* as a superlative.

‖ Upon lesse than wee mowe falle toward hevene from the erthe" = 'unless we can fall,' &c (*Maundeville*, p. 184).

life in you *but* (=*unless*) ye eat my flesh,' i.e. '*leaving out** your eating my flesh, ye have no life in you.' So in Chaucer "But it were any person obstinat" (*Prol.* 521), i.e. '*leaving out* the case of its being (i.e. '*unless* it were') an obstinate person.' We have a similar use of *but* as a conjunction (=*unless* or *except that*) in "But he is something stained with grief, thou mightst call him a goodly person" (Sh. *Temp.* I. 2); "Ne'er may I look on day, but she tells to your highness simple truth" (*Com. Err.* V. 211); "It shall go hard but I will prove it"; "Thieves are not judged but they are by to hear." **Without** and **except** acquired the same force in the same way, as in "Not *without* the Prince be willing" "*Except* ye repent"

But as an adversative co-ordinative conjunction was another product of the same construction. Thus "Myn handwerk to sle sore grevyth me, *but that* here synne here deth doth brewe" (*Cov. M.* p. 43) would appear in modern English as "It grieves me sore to slay my handiwork, *but* their sin doth brew their death." This use of *but* has nearly superseded its older meaning '*unless*,' and *but* in this sense has ousted *ac*,† which is the common adversative conjunction in A.S.

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* The case excepted is, of course, virtually a ***negative hypothesis***. In the older writers *but if* and *but and* (where *and* = *if*) are common, as "but and ye helpe us now" (Chaucer *Troil.*).

Sentences like that quoted in the text were common in A.S., and in an elliptical form gave rise to sentences like the following—"Nán man nát búton fæder ána" = 'no man knoweth but my Father only,' for "búton Þæm Þæt fæder ána wát," 'but that my Father only knows'; "Ne nis na god buten he," = 'there is no God but he [is God]. This shows that *but* may be followed by a nominative case provided the ellipse can be filled up so as to allow of its occurrence in the complete sentence. "Nobody knows it but he" = 'Nobody knows it but he [knows it].' It is equally correct to say "Nobody knows it but him," only *but* is then a preposition, and *but him* forms a limiting adjunct to *nobody*.

It should be noticed that in such cases *but* introduced ***an exception to a general negative statement***. In later English the negative came to be omitted, and so *but* appears to be an adverb meaning *only*. Thus we read in Maundeville "Thei eten not but ones a day," i.e. 'They eat *not* but (= except) that they eat once a day.' We now say "They eat but once a day." "Ther nis but a god" (*Leg. S. Cath.* 282) = 'There is *not* but one God,' is now 'There is but one God.'

There are other instances in which negatives are improperly omitted in modern English. Thus "Do not spend more than you can help," ought to be "Do not spend more than you cannot help." "He has lost ever so much money," should be "He has lost never so much money," *i.e.* "He has lost a quantity of money, and never before lost so much."

† *But* is a difficult word to deal with; it is so often attended by the ellipse of some important word. The omission of the negative has already been noticed (*Note* *). One class of sentences has been much misunderstood. In "There's ne'er a vilain dwelling in all Denmark *but he's* an arrant knave," everybody admits that *but* is a conjunction. In modern English, however, it is very common in such sentences to have either the subject or the object of the verb that follows the 'but' omitted, as "There's not a man I meet but doth salute me"; "Not a holiday fool there but would give a piece of silver" (*Temp.* II. 2, 30); "No jutty . . . but this bird hath made his pendent bed" (*Macb.*). Many grammarians say that in such sentences 'but' has become a *relative pronoun involving a negative*, and is equivalent to *which not*, or *who not*. This is putting an extremely violent strain upon the force of words. One ca.. understand how the intelligence of the speaker or hearer can attach a *connective* force to a word that does not strictly *express* it, that is only a question of grammatical form; but the conversion of a mere conjunction into a word that *stands for a person or thing* is a very different affair. It seems much simpler to allow that a pronoun is understood. There are abundant examples of this kind of omission in the case both of relative pronouns and of their antecedents. The analogy of the Latin *quin* is misleading, because *quin* actually contains the pronominal root, and even in Latin it is never necessary to take *quin* as the *subject* of a following verb.

There are many sentences beginning with *but that*, where it does not matter whether we treat *but* as a preposition followed by a substantive clause, or take *but that* as a compound conjunction like *if that*, *when that*, &c. Thus "The sky would pour down stinking pitch, but that the sea dashes the fire out" (*Temp.* 1, 2, 4). In other cases we must regard *but*

294. **While** is the A.S. *hwil* = 'time,' which was used in the phrase *þá hwile þe* = 'the while that.' * Left by itself, *while* hardened into a conjunction, its notional sense being forgotten. It assumed the adverbial suffix *-s* and its offgrowth *t* (*whiles, whilst*).

Though is the A.S. *þeah* = 'nevertheless.' It is still used as an adverb, as in "You are still in time, make haste *though*." In A.S. the connective particle *þe* was appended to it, to convert it into a conjunction, as *that* was in early English. When the *that* was dropped its conjunctive force was merged in the *though*.

Than is another form of the word *then* (see Chaucer, *passim*), in A.S. *þonne* or *þanne*. In A.S. this was a relative or conjunctive adverb, equivalent to our *when*. In this sense it was used after comparatives to introduce the *standard of comparison*.† "John is taller than Charles" meant originally "When Charles is tall (*i.e.* when the tallness of Charles is regarded) John is taller." "He came sooner than I expected" is "When I expected [him to come soon], he came sooner." "I have no other home than this" is "When I have this, I have no other home." But the original sense of *than* has become so completely forgotten, that the word must now be regarded as a mere conjunction. Clauses beginning with *than* are usually elliptical.

Albeit, i.e. *all-be-it*, is merely a short concessive sentence. In Chaucer we find "Al be that he was a philosophre"; also (without *be*) "All were they sore hurt" (*Kn. T.* 1851) where *al* = *although*.

295. Since all demonstratives involve *reference*, they always cause a certain *connection* in thought between two ideas; but for all that, they are not, grammatically speaking, *connective words*. Such words as *therefore, hence, still, consequently, accordingly, yet, likewise, also*, &c., are only *simple adverbs*,‡ not even *connective adverbs*; still less are they mere *conjunctions*.§

with the substantive clause that follows as forming together a limiting adjunct of a word that involves a general or universal idea, which word may be either expressed or understood, as "I know nothing about it but that he vouched for it." (Here *but that*, &c., limits *nothing*.) "Think not [anything] but [that] we will share in all thy woes." (Here *but we*, &c., limits *anything* understood.) "Never dream [anything] but that ill must come of it." It is by a confusion that we get such sentences as "Never *doubt* but that ill must come of it" Here the exceptive *but* is superfluous.

* "The while that hit in the water is" (Wright, *Pop. Tr.* p. 135). 'The while that' is equivalent to 'what time' in "What time I am afraid," &c. (*Psalm* 56). *While as* is also found in the older writers, as "*While as* the first tabernacle was yet standing" (*Heb.* ix 8) Like the Latin *dum*, *while* in some dialects means *till*, and even has the force of a preposition. Thus 'While then' occurs in Shakspeare (*Macb.*). In Lyly we find 'while bedtime,' &c. *While* has no connection with *who*, *when*, &c. The combination *the whilst* is wrong. If *the* is used, *while* is still a *substantive*, and the adverbial suffix is improper

† In Scotch *be* (= *by*) is used for the same purpose. "He's yunger be onie o' thaim" = 'he's younger *by the side of* (i.e. *when compared* with) any of them.' The provincial idiom "He is older *nor* John," may possibly mean "He is older, *and not* John." Some explain "He is taller than John" as being 'He is taller, *then* (i.e. in the next lower degree) John is tall.' The objections to this are that it will not explain the Anglo-Saxon usage, that it is quite inapplicable to such sentences as some of those given in the text, and that it inverts the logical order of the ideas, making the comparative degree *itself the standard* of *comparison*. *Quam* in Latin does not strictly correspond in force to *than*. It is the correlative of *tam*, and always marks *degree*.

‡ Take "He was idle; *for that reason* he did not succeed." We have obviously two complete and independent sentences; but substitute for 'for that reason' its exact grammatical equivalent 'therefore,' and half the writers of grammars will tell us that *therefore* is a conjunction, and that we have *one* (compound) sentence, not two separate ones

§ A great mistake is made when *quum* and *ut* in Latin are called *conjunctions*. They are

INTERJECTION.

296. Interjections are words which are used to express some emotion of the mind, but do not enter into the construction of sentences; as, *Oh! O! Ah! Ha! Alas! Fie! Pshaw! Hurrah!*

In written language interjections are usually followed by what is called a mark of admiration (!).

The interjection is a nondescript kind of word. It is scarcely *notional*, and is certainly not *relational*.

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION.

297. Words may be divided into two classes—*primary* words, and *secondary* or *derivative* words.

A word is a *primary* word when it does not admit of being resolved into simpler elements; as *man, horse, run.*

A word is a *secondary* word when it is made up of significant parts, which exist either separately or in other combinations.

Secondary words are formed partly by *Composition*, partly by *Derivation.*

COMPOSITION.

298. A word is a *compound* word when it is made up of two or more parts, each of which is a significant word by itself; as *apple-tree, tea-spoon, spend-thrift.*

All compounds admit of being divided primarily into two words; but one of these may itself be a compound word, so that the entire word may be separated into three or four words; as *handicraftsman* (made up of *man* and *handicraft*, *handicraft* being itself made up of *hand* and *craft**); *midshipman* (made up of *man* and *midship*, *midship* being itself made up of *mid* and *ship.*

299. In most compound words it is the first word which modifies the meaning of the second.† (The second denotes the *genus*, the first distinguishes the *species.*) *Rosebush* means a particular kind of *bush*, namely, one that bears roses A *haycart* is a certain kind of *cart*, namely, one

connective adverbs. The Part of Speech to which a word belongs is not determined by our translation of it. Everybody agrees that *quum* = *when* is an adverb; but *quum* = *since* is usually called a conjunction. This is wrong. *Quum* is always adverbial; it always refers either to the *time* or to the *attendant circumstances* of an event. So with *ut.* The sentence 'tam validus est ut nemo eum superare possit' is virtually 'he has such a (or a certain) degree of strength, *and so* no one can overcome him.'

* The *i* in *handicraft* and *handiwork* is a relic of the syllable *ge* in the A.S. *handgecraeft* and *handgeweorc.*

† This does not apply to compounds in which the first element is a verb or preposition governing the second, as *godsend, asleep, because*, &c.

for carrying hay. The accent is placed upon the modifying word when the amalgamation is complete. When the two elements of the compound are only partially blended, a hyphen is put between them, and the accent falls equally on both parts of the compound, as in *knee-deep*.* We do not get a true compound so long as the separate elements both retain their natural and full significance, and their ordinary syntactical relation. *Composition* is accompanied by *limitation* of significance. Compare *blue bell* and *bluebell*, *red breast* and *redbreast*, *monk's hood* and *monkshood*.

A.—COMPOUND NOUNS.

300. Compound Nouns exhibit the following combinations :—

1. A noun preceded by a noun, of which the first (1) denotes what the second consists of, is characterized by, or attached to, as *haystack*, *cornfield*, *oaktree*, *wineshop*, *churchyard*; (2) denotes the purpose for which the thing denoted by the second is used,† as *teaspoon*, *milking-stool* (see § 202), *inkstand*; or with which its activity is connected, as *man-killer*, *bush-ranger*, *sun-shade*; (3) is a defining genitive, or the equivalent of one, as *swordsman*, *kinsman*, *Wednesday* (*Woden's day*), *sun-beam*, *noon-tide*, *day-star*.
2. A noun preceded and modified by an adjective, as *roundhead*, *blackbird*, *quicksilver*, *Northampton*, *midday*, *midriff* (A.S. *hrif* = bowels). *Twilight* (*twi* = *two*), *fortnight* (i.e., *fourteen-night*), *sennight* (i.e., *seven night*) are from numerals.
3. A noun preceded by a verb of which it is the object, as *stopgap*, *pick-pocket*, *makeweight*, *turncock*, *wagtail*, *spitfire*.
4. A noun denoting an agent preceded by what would be the object of the corresponding verb, as *man-slayer*, *peace-maker*.
5. A gerund preceded by a governed noun, as *wire-pulling*.
6. A verb preceded by a noun, as *godsend* (very rare).
7. A noun preceded by an adverb, which modifies (adverbially) the noun, when that denotes an action, as *forethought*, *neighbour* (A.S. *neah-bûr* = 'one who dwells near'), *off-shoot*, *aftertaste*, *by-path*, *anvil* (A.S. *anfilt* or *onfilt*, from *fillian* 'to strike').
8. A noun preceded and governed by a preposition, as *forenoon*.
9. A verb preceded or followed by an adverb which modifies it, the compound constituting a noun, as *inlet*, *welfare*, *onset*, *go-between*, *standstill*, *income*.

301. The following compounds, in which one or both of the elements have been changed or become obsolete, are given by Koch (iii. *p.* 98).

bandog	= bond-dog	(*a dog chained up*)
barn	= bere-ærn	(*barley house*)
bridal	= brȳd-ealu	(*bride-ale*)
brimstone	= bryn-stân	(*burning-stone*)
distaff	= dise-stæf	(*flax-staff*)
garlic, hemlock	from leâc	(*leek*)

* The use of the hyphen is very much a matter of usage or fancy. *Footsore* and *heart-broken*, *henpecked* and *conscience-stricken* are formed alike. Similarly *teaspoon*, *apple-tree*, and *cannon ball* are equally compound words. If two words are *sounded* together as a compound, the mode of writing them matters but litt

† The modifying word may be a verb used substantively, as in *washtub*, *grindstone*, *stewpan*; or the pronoun *self*, as *self-will*, *self-murder*.

gospel	= god-spell	(*good news*, or *God's message*)
grunsel	= grund-syl	(*groun't-sill, threshold*)
hangnail	= ang-naegele	(*a sore under the nail*)
huzzy	= hûs-wîf	(*house-wife*)
icicle	= îs-gicel	(provincial, *ice-shoggle*)
lammas	= hlâf-messe	(*loaf-mass*)
leman	= leof-man	(*loved* or *dear person*)
midwife	= mêd-wîf	(*hired woman*)
moldwarp or *mole*	= molde-weorp	(*mould-thrower*)
nostril	= nas-þyrl	(*nose-hole.* Comp. *drill*)
orchard	= ort-geard	(*wort-* or *root-garden*)
shelter	= scyld-truma	(*troop-shield*)
steward	= stige-weard	(*sty-* or *stall-warden*)
stirrup	= stîg-râp	(*mounting-rope*)
wedlock	= wedlâc	(*pledge-gift*)
world	= wer-eld	(*man-age, a generation*)

B.—COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

302. Compound Adjectives exhibit the following combinations :—

1. An adjective preceded by a noun, which qualifies it adverbially (comp. § 267), as *sky-blue, fire-new, pitch-dark, blood-red, ankle-deep, breast-high, head-strong, childlike, hopeful* (and other compounds of *full*, once formed with the noun in the genitive, as *willesful* = *wilful*), *shamefaced* (originally *shamefast*, A.S. *sceamfæst*), *steadfast*.
2. The adjective in these compounds is often a participle, as in *seafaring, bed-ridden, heart-broken, tempest-tossed, sea-girt*, &c.
3. An imperfect participle preceded by its object, as *tale-bearing, heart-rending, time-serving*, &c.
4. An adjective or participle preceded by a simple adverb, as *upright, downright, under-done, out-spoken, inborn, almighty*.
5. A noun preceded by an adjective, as *barefoot, two-fold, manifold*, a *three-bottle* man, a *twopenny* cake, a *three-foot* rule. (Compare the nick-names *Hotspur, Longshanks, Roundhead*, &c) In modern English these compounds have taken the participial ending, *bare-legged, one eyed*, &c.

C.—COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

303. See the section on Pronouns.

D.—COMPOUND VERBS.

304. These present the following combinations :—

1. A verb preceded by a separable adverb, as *ondo, understand, fulfil, undergo, cross-question*. *Twit* is a corruption of *æt-witan*.
2. A verb preceded by its object, as *back-bite, brow-beat*.
3. A verb of incomplete predication preceded by its complement (see *Syntax, Complex Predicate*), as *white-wash, rough-hew*.
4. A verb followed by an adverb, as *don* (= *do* or *put on*), *doff* (= *do* or *put off*), *dout* or *douse* = *do out*, *dup* = *do up*. (Comp. Germ. *aufthun*.)

305. For compound adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, see §§ 267, 269, 271, 281, 291, &c.

DERIVATION.

306. Most words in all languages have been built up by the combination of simpler elements. Words generally admit of being arranged in groups, the words belonging to each of which have a certain portion which is common to all, and which represents a certain fundamental notion.

307. Thus, *love* is common to all the words [*he*] *loves*, *loving*, *lover*, *lovable*, *lovely*, *loveless*, &c. So in Latin, *fac* is common to *facio*, *feci*, *factum*, *factor*, *efficio*, *factio*, *facies*, &c. This common fundamental part of a group of words is called a *root*. Many of these *roots* are found in all or several of the kindred languages constituting the *Aryan* family.*

308. All *roots* are monosyllabic, and the most primitive roots consist of a single vowel, or a vowel and a consonant. Roots are subdivided into *predicative roots*, representing *notions*, and *demonstrative* or *relational roots*, indicating the relations of notions to each other or to the speaker. Primitive roots are not *words*, but elements from which words are formed, either by combination or by making some change in the form of the root; which latter process was certainly in many cases, and possibly in all, the result of the blending of some earlier combination of different roots.

In the course of time a large number of the elements by which words have been formed from roots, or from other words, have lost their independent existence and significance, and been reduced to mere prefixes and suffixes; and frequently have vanished altogether.

309. *Derivation*, in the wide sense of the term, includes all processes by which words are formed from roots, or from other words. In practice, however, *derivation* excludes *composition*, which is the putting together of words both or all of which retain an independent existence, and *inflexion*, which is the name given to those changes in certain classes of words by which the varieties of their *grammatical* relations are indicated. (See § 28.)

310. The addition of a syllable for inflexion or derivation often causes the weakening of the vowel sound of a preceding syllable. Compare *nātion* with *nătional*; *vain* with *vanity*; *child* with *children*; *cock* with *chicken*; *long* with *linger*; *old* with *elder*; *broad* with *breadth*. A weakened vowel sound marks a derived word.

DERIVATION BY MEANS OF TEUTONIC PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

DERIVED NOUNS.

311. Noun Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

1. **un**; as in *unrest*, *undress*.

* Account must be taken of the changes classified in Grimm's law.

2. **mis**; as in *misdeed, mishap, mistrust, misconduct.* This prefix (connected with the verb **miss**, and the old English **mys** = *evil*) implies error or fault in the action referred to. In many words of Romance origin, as *mischance, mis* = old French *mes*, from Lat. *minus.*

Noun Suffixes of Teutonic Origin.

312. 1. Suffixes denoting a person or the doer of an action.

-er or **-ar** (A.S. *-ere*),—*singer, baker, beggar, liar.*
-ster (originally denoting female agent),—*spinster, tapster* (§ 45, A).
-ter, -ther, -der,—*father, daughter, spider* (= *spinder* or *spinner*).
-nd (old imperfect participle),—*fiend, friend* (from [illegible]*ian* 'to hate' and *frijon* 'to love').

313. 2. Suffixes usually denoting an instrument.

-el, -le (A.S. *-ol*, or *-ul*),—*shovel, girdle, shuttle, brindle, sickle.*
-ter, -der,—*ladder* (Germ. *Leiter*, root *hlî* = *mount*), *rudder, weather* (Goth. *waian* = 'to blow').

314. 3. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-dom (connected with *deem* and *doom*, implying condition or sphere of action),—*kingdom, earldom, thraldom, martyrdom, Christendom, wisdom, freedom.* (Compare Germ. *-thum.*)
-hood, -head (A.S. *hâd* = person, state, condition),—*manhood, priesthood, childhood, godhead.* (Germ. *-heit.*)
-red (A.S. *ræd* = counsel, power, state),—*hatred, kindred.* In old English *freondrede* (*friendship*), *sibrede* (*relationship*), &c.
-ship, -scape, -skip (denoting *shape, fashion*, from *scapan* = *to shape*),—*friendship, hardship, worship* (i.e. *worth-ship*), *landscape* or *land-skip.* (Compare Germ. *-schaft* from *schaffen.*)
-ing,—*hunting, blessing, flooring, clothing* (with *collective* sense).
-ness,—*redness, goodness, witness* (from the verb *wit*).
-th, -t, -(s)t, -d,*—*growth, health, death* (die), *gift, might* (may), *theft, flight, rift* (rive), *upriste* = *uprising* (Chaucer), *harvest* (from stem *harv* or *harf*; compare Gr. **κάρπ-os**), *mirth* (merry), *flood, ruth* (rue), *truth* and *trust* (from *true* or *trow*) *breadth*† (*broad*), *strength* (strong). *Youth* (from *young* with loss of *n* and the guttural; A.S. *geogoð*).
Some abstract nouns are made with vowel change, as *eld* from *old, wrath* from *wroth, heat* from *hot.*

315. 4. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-en;—*maiden, kitten*,‡ *chicken* ‡ (cock).
-el, -le;—*satchel* (sack), *kernel* (little *corn*), *navel* (from *nave*), *paddle* (= spaddle, from spade).
-rel;—*cockerel, mongrel*,§ *gangrel* (a *vagabond*), *wastrel.*
-kin;—*lambkin, pipkin, mannikin, Perkin* (= *Peterkin*), *Tomkin, Wilkin, Hawkin* (from *Hal*), *Watkin* (*Walter*), *Hodgkin* (*Roger*), *Simkin* (*Simon*). Compare Germ. *-chen.*

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* Connected with the suffix of the perfect participle (weak), as in *couth* (= known), *b-ought, loved.*
† Look at § 28, 3.
‡ See § 23, 3.
§ From the root *mong* = *mix.* Compare *mingle.*

-ling ;—*duckling, kidling, darling, suckling, hireling, starveling.* The sense of diminution passes into *depreciation*, as in *worldling, groundling.*
-ock ;—*hillock, bullock, ruddock* (robin red-breast), *hummock* (from *hump*), *paddock* (toad, Germ. *Padde*), *pinnock* (tom-tit). In Scotch *wifock, laddock, lassock*, &c., and with *ie, wifukie* (wee little woman), *drappukie* (wee little drop). *Pollock* (Paul), *Baldock* (Baldwin).
-y, -ie, -ey ;—*daddie, Annie, Charley* or *Charlie.*

316. **5. Patronymics.**

-ing (= son of) ;—*Atheling.* In tribal and family names, as *Tooting, Hardingham, Pilkington.* With a modified meaning in *herring* (the shoal-fish, from A.S. *here* = army or shoal), *tithing, farthing.*

6. Other Suffixes.

-el, -le ;—*apple, riddle.*
-en, -on or **-n** ;—*garden, kitchen* (from *cook*, see § 28, 3), *token, beacon, rain, brain, loan.*
-er ;—*hammer, hunger, summer, water.*
-m or **-om** (closely allied in sense to the abstract suffixes) ;—*bloom, blossom,* bosom, doom* (from the verb *do* = *set* or *place*), *dream, stream, slime* (compare Lat. *saliva*), *qualm* (*quail, quell*).
-ow (= A.S. **-u**) ;—*shadow, meadow, shallow* (*shoal*).

DERIVED ADJECTIVES.

Adjective Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

317. 1. **a,**—*alive,*† *aweary. Athirst* in A.S. *of-þyrst.*‡
2. **a,** a corruption of *ge,*—*alike* = *gelic.*
3. **un** (negative, not the same as the *un* in verbs) ;—*unwise, untrue,* and before Romance words, as *uncourteous.* An *umpire* is one who makes the two sides *uneven* (*in* or *un, par*) by joining one of them.

Adjective Suffixes (Teutonic).

318. **-ed** ;—the common participial suffix. Also added to nouns, as in *ragged, wretched, left-handed*, &c.
-en or **-n** (used also as a participial suffix) ;—*wooden, golden, linen* (from *lin* = *flax*), *heathen* (a dweller on the *heath*), *green, fain*, &c.
-er or **-r** ;—*bitter, lither, fair.*
-ern (a compound of the two last) ;—*northern, southern*, &c.
-el or **-le** (A.S. **-ol**) ;—*fickle, little, brittle, idle.*
-ard or **-art** (= *hard*, A.S. *heard*, gives an intensive force) ;—added to adjectives and verbs, as *dullard, drunkard, laggard, dotard, braggart, blinkard, stinkard.* This suffix made its way into the Romance languages, out of which some derivatives have come into English, as *bastard, standard* (O.F. *estendre* = *extendere*), *coward* (*codardo* from Lat. *cauda ;* properly a dog that runs away with his *tail* between his legs). *Dastard* is probably connected with *daze* (Skeat, *E. D.*).

* A.S *blóstma*, from the root *blo* (*blow*) and the two suffixes *-st* (see § 314) and *-ma.*
† Properly an adverbial phrase—*on life.*
‡ Shortened from *of-þyrsted. Of* is an intensive particle, not the preposition. *An hungred* is of similar origin ; *of* was weakened to *a*, and *n* put in for euphony.

-ish, -sh, -ch, added to nouns to denote 'belonging to,' 'having the qualities of,' as *swinish, slavish, foolish, Romish, Turkish, Welsh, French.* Comp. Germ. *-sch.* Added to adjectives it naturally gives a diminutive force, as *blackish, dullish.*

less (A.S. *leas* = *loose, free from, without*). *Heedless, senseless.*

-ly (a corruption of *like*), added (of course) to nouns. *Godly, heavenly, ghastly* (from *ghost*), *manly.*

-ow (A.S. **-u**);—*narrow, callow,* &c.

-some, added to verbs and adjectives to denote the presence of the quality that they indicate. *Winsome, buxom* (from *bugan* = *to yield*), *tiresome, quarrelsome, wholesome, blithesome, fulsome.*

-th or **d** (originally a superlative suffix), in numerals. *Third, fourth,* &c.

-y = A.S. **-ig,** added usually to nouns to indicate the presence of that for which the noun stands. *Greedy, bloody, needy, thirsty, moody, sorry* (*sore*), &c. Added to verbs, in *sticky, sundry* (*sunder*), *weary.*

-ward, denoting 'becoming' or 'inclining to' from A.S. *weorðan* (see § 268). *Northward, froward* (*from*), *toward* (*to*), *awkward* (from the old adjective *auk* or *awk*, 'contrary, wrong'), meaning originally '*back-handedly, transversely.*'

319. For **Derived Pronouns,** see §§ 154—175.

DERIVED VERBS.

Verb-Prefixes (Teutonic).

320. 1. *a-* meaning formerly *out, away, off* (A.S. âceorfan 'to cut off'), afterwards *back* or *again,* now an *intensive* particle, prefixed to verbs:—*arise, abide, awake.*

be (= **by**) denotes the application of an action to an object, and so (*a*) makes intransitive verbs transitive, as *bemoan, bespeak, bestride, befall,* or (*b*) forms transitive verbs out of adjectives or nouns, as *bedim, begrime* (*grim*), *benumb, becloud, befriend, bedew,* or (*c*) strengthens the meaning of transitive verbs, as *betake, bestow, bedazzle. Believe* is a corruption of A.S. *gelýfan* (Germ. *glauben*).

for (= German *ver*) usually implies that the action indicated by the simple verb is negatived, or done in a bad sense, as *forbid, forsake, forget* (= 'undo the getting'). *Forgive* meant originally 'to abandon by giving.' (Compare Lat. *condonare.*)

mis, denoting *error* or *defect,* as in *misspell, misbelieve, mislike, misgive,* Before Romance words, *misadvise, misdirect.*

un (Gothic *and* = *against, back,* German *ent*), implies the reversal of the action indicated by the simple verb:—*unbind, undo, untie. Unbosom, unkennel,* &c., are made from nouns. *Answer* (A.S. *andswarian*) has the prefix in the older form; also *ambassador* (Gothic *andbahts* = *servant*).

gain (root of *against,* German *gegen*); *gainsay, gainstrive.*

with (see § 284 'with'); *withdraw, withstand, withhold.*

to (= Germ. *zer*; not the preposition *to*); *to brake* ('broke to pieces') is still found in *Judges* ix. 53.

Verb-Suffixes (Teutonic).

321. **-el** or **-le,** added to the roots of verbs and nouns gives a combined frequentative and diminutive force: *dazzle* (*daze*), *straddle* (*stride*),

shovel (*shove*), *swaddle* (*swathe*), *dribble* (*drop*), *gamble* (*game*), *waddle* (*wade*), *snivel* (*sniff*), *grapple* (*grab*): from nouns—*kneel* (*knee*), *nestle* (*nest*), *sparkle* (*spark*), *throttle* (*throat*), *nibble* (*nib* or *neb*), *curdle*, *scribble* (*scribe*).

-er (giving much the same force as the last), *glimmer* (*gleam*), *wander* (*wend*), *fritter* (*fret*), *flitter* and *flutter* (*flit*).

-k (frequentative); *hark* (*hear*), *talk* (*tell*).

-en forming causative or factitive verbs from nouns and adjectives; as *strengthen*, *lengthen*, *frighten*, *fatten*, *sweeten*, *slacken*.

-se, forming verbs from adjectives; *cleanse*, *rinse* (comp. Germ. *rein*).

Derivatives formed by Modifications of Sound.

322. Verbs are often formed from nouns by a modification or weakening of the vowel sound, or of the final consonant, or of both. Thus *bind* (from *bond*), *sing* (from *song*), *breed* (*brood*), *feed* (*food*), *knit* (*knot*), *drip* (*drop*), *heal* (*whole*), *calve* (*calf*), *halve* (*half*), *breathe* (*breath*), *bathe* (*bath*), *shelve* (*shelf*), *graze* (*grass*), *glaze* (*glass*), *hitch* (*hook*). The same process is seen in Romance words, as *prize* from *price*, *advise* (*advice*), &c. The weakening was occasioned by verbal suffixes, which have since disappeared.

323. Transitive (causative) verbs are often formed by a slight **modification or weakening of the root** vowel from intransitive verbs denoting the act or state which the former produce. Thus *fell* (from *fall*), *set* (from *sit*), *raise* (from *rise*), *lay* (*lie*), *drench* (*drink*), *wend* (*wind*), *quail* (*quail*, A.S. *cwêlan* 'to die').

324. A **k** or **g** sound at the end of words in old English tends to become **softened** in modern English. Compare *dike* and *ditch*, *stink* and *stench*, *wring* and *wrench*, *mark* and *march* (= *boundary*), *lurk*, and *lurch*, *bank* and *bench*, *stark* and *starch*, *seek* and *beseech*, *bark* and *barge*, *bake* and *batch*, *stick* and *stitch*, *wake* and *watch*, *tweak* and *twitch*. Also *sc* tends to become *sh*, as A.S. *scacan* = *shake*, A.S. *scádu* = *shadow*, A.S. *sceal* = *shall*, A.S. *sceáp* = *sheep*, A.S. *scapan* = *shape*, A.S. *scip* = *ship*, &c., *scuffle* = *shuffle*, *screech* = *shriek*, *scabby* = *shabby*, *skirt* = *shirt*, &c.

325. Other collateral forms involve the **retention or omission of an initial s.** Compare *smash*, *mash*; *splash*, *plash*; *smelt*, *melt*; *squash*, *quash*; *squench*, *quench*; *swag*, *wag*.

326. For **Derived Adverbs, Prepositions,** and **Conjunctions** see §§ 267—291.

DERIVED WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

327. Prefixes of Latin Origin.

a, ab, abs (from *or* away). *Avert*, *abduction*, *abstract*. The *d* in *advance* is an error; Fr. *avancer* from *ab* and *ante*.

ad (to) found also in the forms *ac*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *as*, *at*, *a*, according to the consonant that follows it. *Adore*, *accede*, *allude*, *announce*, *appear*, *assent*, *attend*, *aspire*.

amb- or **am-** (round). *Amputate, ambiguous.*
ante or **anti** (before). *Antediluvian, antecessor* (or *ancestor*), *anticipate.*
circum or **circu** (round). *Circumlocution, circuit.*
con (with), also **com-**, **col-**, **cor-**, **co-**, according to the following consonant. *Conduct, compact, collision, correct, coheir.*
contra, contro (against), often Anglicized into *counter. Contravene, controvert, counteract, country-dance* = *contre-danse.*
de (down, from). *Denote, describe, descend.*
dis (in two, apart), also **dif-**, **di-**, **de-**. *Dissent, differ, dilute, deluge* (= *diluvium*), *depart, demi* = *dimidium.* Naturalized and used as a negative before Teutonic words; *disband, disbelieve, distrust.**
ex (out of), **ec-**, **ef-**, **e-**. *Extrude, efface, educe.* Disguised in *astonish* (*étonner* = *extonare*), *afraid* (*effrayer*), *scourge* (*ex-corrigere*), &c.
extra (beyond). *Extravagant, extraneous, stranger.*
in (in, into), modified to **il-**, **im-**, **ir-**, **en-**, **em-**. *Induce, illusion, impel, irruption, endure, embrace.* Naturalized and used before Teutonic words, *embody, endear.* Disguised in *anoint* (*in-unctus*).
in (negative). *Insecure, improper, illegitimate, irrational.*
inter, intro (among, within). *Interdict, introduce.*
mis- (Old Fr. *mes* = Lat. **minus**); *mischance* (comp. Fr. *méchant*), *mischief.*
ob, obs (against), **oc-**, **of-**, **op-**. *Oblige, occur, offend, oppose.*
per (through), **pel-**. *Permit, pellucid.* Disguised in *pardon* (*perdonare*), *pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino* = *peregrinus*).
post (after). *Postpone.*
prae or **pre** (before). *Prevision, preface. Provost* = *prae-positus.*
praeter, preter (past). *Preterite, preternatural.*
pro (forth, before), **pol, por-, pur-**. *Promote, pollute, portray, purchase* (*pro-captiare*), *purpose, purveyor.*
re or **red** (back, again). *Reduction, redound, reduce.* Used before Teutonic words in *reset, reopen,* &c.
retro (backwards). *Retrograde. Rear* in *rearward.*
se or **sed** (apart). *Seduce, sed-ition.*
sub or **subs** (under), **suc-**, **suf-**, **sur-**, **sus-**. *Subdue, succeed, suffuse, surrogate, suspend.* Disguised in *sojourn* (*sub diurno*). Prefixed to Teutonic words in *sublet,* &c.
subter (beneath). *Subterfuge.*
super (above), **sur.** *Superscribe, surface* (= *superficies*), *surfeit.*
trans or **tra** (beyond). *Translate, tradition.*
ultra (beyond). *Ultramontane. Outrage* from It. *oltraggio.*

Suffixes of Latin Origin.†

328. Suffixes Denoting Persons.

(Doers of actions, persons charged with certain functions, or having to do with that for which the primary word stands.)

* In some cases, when placed before Teutonic words, *dis* is merely a corruption of *mis*, as in *misbelieve, mislike, mistrust.*

† It is difficult to classify these suffixes with any approach to precision, as some have got very much confused, and adjectives and participles often make their appearance as nouns and verbs.

-tor, -sor, -or, -our, -er (= Latin **-tor, -sor, -ator**) ;—*doctor, successor, emperor* (*imperator*), *Saviour* (*salvator*), *founder* (*fundator*), *enchanter* (*incantator*). Sometimes confused with the A.S. *-ere.*

-ant, -ent (participles) ;—*attendant, tenant, agent.*

-er, -eer, -ier, -or, -ary (Lat. **-arius**, denoting usually 'one whose functions are connected with' that for which the primitive noun stands) ;—*usher* (*ostiarius*), *archer* (*arcuarius*), *farrier* (*ferrarius*), *brigadier, chancellor, lapidary, engineer* (Fr. *ingénieur*) from *ingeniator.*

-ate (Latin **-atus**) ;—*legate, advocate.* Weakened to **-ee, -ey** or **y** in *nominee, committee, attorney, jury* (*juratus*), *deputy* (*deputatus*), *journey* (*diurnata*), *party* from *partita.*

-ess, ese (Lat. **-ensis**) ;—*burgess, Chinese.*

-ess (Lat. **-issa**, fem. suffix) ;—*countess, traitress.*

329. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-ion, -tion, -sion, -son, -som ;—*opinion, action, tension, poison* (*potion-*), *ransom* (*redemption-*), *reason* (*ration-*), *season* (*sation-*, 'sowing time').

-ance, -ancy, -ence, -ency (Lat. **-antia, -entia**);—*distance, infancy, continence, decency, chance* (*cadentia*), *province* (provincia = *providentia*) ; imitated in *grievance,* &c.

-age (Lat. **-agium** = **-aticum**) ;—*age, voyage* (*viaticum*), *savage* (*silvaticus*), *personage, homage, marriage* (*maritagium*). Naturalized and added to Teutonic words, as in *tillage, windage, wharfage, bondage.* This suffix denotes (1) the condition or occupation of the person indicated by the primary noun, as *vassalage, pilotage ;* (2) a collection, quantity, or summing-up, as *poundage, mileage, herbage ;* (3) a state or process in which something is concerned, as *wharfage, bondage, windage ;* (4) when added to verbs, the result of an act, or the sum total of separate acts indicated by the verb, as *breakage, leakage, pillage* (*pil* or *peel* = *strip*), *coinage,* &c.

-ty, -ity (Lat. **-tat, -itat-**) ;—*vanity, cruelty, city* (*civitat-*).

-tude ;—*fortitude, magnitude.*

-our (Lat. **-or**) ;—*labour, ardour, honour.* Imitated in *behaviour.*

-y (Lat. **-ia**) ;—*misery, memory.* Preceded by *t* or *s*, **-tia** or **-sia** = **-cy** or **-ce**, *aristocracy, fancy, grace.* Also in abstract nouns of late formation, as *bastardy, gluttony, beggary, simony.*

-ice, -ess (Lat. **-itia** or **-itium**) ;—*avarice, justice, duress* (*duritia*), *largess* (*largitia*), *service, exercise ;* **-ice** = **ex** in *pumice.* Latin **-ia**, or Greek **-εια** preceded by **t** or **s** gave rise to **-cy** or **-sy** in *aristocracy, abbacy, fancy* or *phantasy* (φαντασία), *grace.* Imitated in *intimacy, obstinacy, bankruptcy,* &c.

-ure ;—*verdure, culture, picture, censure.*

-e (Lat. **-ium**) ;—*exile, homicide.*

-se, -ce, -s (Lat. **-sus**) ;—*case, advice, process.*

Suffixes denoting the Instrument or Place of some Action.

330. **-ble** (Lat. **-bulus, -a, -um**) ;—*stable, vestibule.*

-cle, -cre (Lat. **-culus, a, -um ; -crum**) ;—*obstacle, receptacle, cuticle, tabernacle, sepulchre, lucre.*

-tre, -ter (Lat. **-trum**) ;—*cloister* (*claustrum*), *theatre.*

-tory, -sory, -ser, -or, -our, -er (Lat. **-torium, -sorium**) ;—*auditory* (*auditorium* = 'place for hearing'), *accessory, censer* (*incensorium*), *mirror* (*miratorium*), *parlour* (*parlatorium*), *manger* (*manducatoria*).

-me, -m, -n (Lat. **-men**) ;—*volume, charm* (*carmen*), *leaven* (*levamen*), *noun* (*nomen*).

-ment (Lat. **-mentum**) ;—*ornament, pigment ;* or denoting the action itself, as *discernment, payment.* Naturalized in *bewitchment, fulfilment,* &c.

331. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-ule ;—*globule, pillule.*

-el, -le, -l (Lat. **-ulus, -a, -um** ; **allus, -ellus, -illus**) ;—*chapel, chancel* (*cancelli*), *libel, table, fable* (*fabula* = *famula* from *fama*), *circle, castle, sam(p)le* (*exemplum*), *veal* (*vitulus*), *buckle* (*buccula*, from the *face* with which it was commonly adorned). *Participle* (*participium*), *principle* (*principium*), and *chronicle* (*chronica*) are anomalous.

-cle, -cel, -sel (Lat. **culus**, &c., **cellus**, &c.) ;—*carbuncle, article, particle* (*particula*), *parcel* (*particella*), *damsel* (*dominicella*).

-et, -let (Romance, but of obscure origin) ;—*owlet, ballet, pocket, armlet, cutlet, streamlet.*

332. Suffixes forming Augmentatives.

-oon, -one, -on ;—*balloon, trombone, million, flagon.* Compare the Latin nicknames *Naso*(*n-*) = *Big-nose, Capito*(*n-*) = *Big-head.*

333. Suffixes having a Collective or Generic Sense.

-ery, -ry, -er (Lat. **-aria** *or* **-eria**) ;— *nunnery, carpentry, chivalry, cavalry, river* (*riparia*), *gutter* (channel for *guttae*, 'drops'). The suffix **-ry** was naturalized and used in modern formations, as *poetry, jewelry, spicery, peasantry,* and added to Teutonic stems, as in *knavery, thievery, cookery. Fairy* (*féerie*) is properly a *collective* noun, based on *fay* (= *fata*).

Other Suffixes.

-ade (**-atus**, through Spanish and Italian) ;—*cascade, lemonade, brigade.*

-ne, -n (Lat. **-num**) ;—*plane, plan, fane, reign, sign,* &c.

-el, -le (Lat. **-ela**) ;—*sequel, quarrel* (*querela*), *candle.*

-ster ;—*master* (*magister* from *mag-nus*), *minister* (from *min-or*).

-y (Lat. **-ium**) ;—*remedy, study.*

-y, -ee (Lat. **-aeus**) ;—*pigmy, Pharisee.*

334. Suffixes forming Adjectives.

(Many of these adjectives have become substantives in English.)

al (Latin **-alis**, added to nouns, and denoting 'possessing the qualities of,' 'belonging to,' 'connected with') ;—*legal, regal, general, comical, canal ;* passing into **-el** in *channel, hotel, jewel,* or **-le** in *cattle* (*capitalia*). *Cruel* = *crudelis.* Modern imitations in *trial, denial, proposal,* &c. *Whimsical* (from *whimsy*) is an imitation of *comical.*

-an, -ane, -ain, -en, -on (Latin **anus**, 'connected with') ;—*pagan, mundane, certain, mizzen* (*medianus*), *surgeon* (*chirurgianus*), *sexton* (= *sacristan*), *parishion-er* (*parochianus*). *Alien* from *alienus*.

-ain, -aign, -eign, -ange (Lat. **-aneus**) ;—*mountain, champaign, foreign* (*foraneus*), *strange* (*extraneus*)

-ar (Lat. **-aris**) ;—*regular, singular.*

-ary, -arious (Lat. **-arius**) ;—*necessary, gregarious.* Nouns—*salary, granary*, &c.

-ian ;—*Christian.* Combined with the last in *librarian, antiquarian.*

-ine, -im (Latin **-inus, a, um**) ;—*feminine, feline, divine, rapine, doctrine, pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino*, from *peregrinus*).

-ant, -ent (participles) ;—*volant, fluent, patent.*

-ate, -ete, -eet, -ite, -ute, -te, -t (from Latin participles and adjectives) ;—*innate, concrete, discreet, hirsute, statute, polite, chaste, honest. Mandate, minute, fact, effect*, &c., have become nouns.

-se, -ce (Lat. **-sus**) ;—*immense, intense, spouse* (*sponsa*), *sauce* (*salsus*).

-ile, -il, -eel, -le, -el (Lat. **-ilis** and **-flis**) ;—*fragile, senile, civil, frail* (Lat. *fragilis*), *genteel, gentle, able* (*habilis*). *kennel* (*canile*).

-able, -ible, -ble ;—*culpable, edible, feeble* (*flebilis*), old French *floible* (compare German *wenig* from *weinen*). So many of these words ended in *able*, that this was regarded as the standard formation. It was naturalized and added to Teutonic roots, as in *teachable, eatable.*

-ic, -ique ;—*civic, public, unique.*

-ous, -ose (**-osus**, full of, abounding in) ;—*copious, verbose, grandiose, jocose, famous, perilous* and *parlous* (*periculosus*). Added to modern words, as *dangerous* (*danger* = *domigerium* 'lordship'), and to Teutonic stems, as in *wondrous, murderous*, &c. *Piteous* is a variety of the older form *pitous* (*pietosus*). *Righteous* is a corruption of *rihtwis.*

-ous (Lat. **-us**) ;—*anxious, omnivorous.*

-acious (made up of **-ius** combined with **ac-** and **cc-**) ;—*mendacious, loquacious, vivacious, ferocious.*

-ious or **-y** (Lat. **-ius**) ;—*censorious, amatory, illusory.*

-id ;—*fervid, timid, hurried.*

-ive, -iffs (**-ivus**, commonly added to the stem of the passive participle in **-tus** or **-sus**, and denoting 'inclined to,' or 'apt for' the action denoted by the verb) ;—*captive, caitiff* (*captivus*), *plaintive, plaintiff, bailiff* (*bajulivus*), *indicative, adoptive, restive.* Naturalized in the form *-ative* (compare *-able*) and added to a Teutonic stem in *talkative. Hasty, jolly, testy* have lost an *f:* in old French they are *hastif, jolif, testif* (= *heady*). See Koch iii. 2, *p.* 48.

-estrial, -estrian (Lat. **-estris, anus** or **alis**) ;—*terrestrial, equestrian.*

Words in *-ave, -tic, -atic, -aceous, -id, -lent, -lence, -mony, -esque* (*-iscus* from *icus*), *-tude, -bund*, or *-bond, -und, -umn*, &c., will be readily recognized as of Latin origin.

335. Verb-Suffixes.

-fy (Lat. **-ficare**, forming compounds rather than derivatives) ;—*terrify.*

-ish (Lat. **-esco**, through the French inchoative conjugation in *-ir, -issant*) ;—*banish, punish*, &c.

336. There are two principal modes in which verbs are formed

in English from Latin verbs. One mode is to take simply the crude form of the infinitive mood or present tense, without any suffix; as *intend, defend, manumit, incline, opine*. The second mode is to turn the perfect participle passive (slightly modified) into a verb, as *create* (from *creatus*), *conduct* (from *conductus*), *credit* (from *creditus*), *expedite* (*expeditus*), *incense* (from *incensus*). When derivatives are formed by both methods, one generally retains one of the meanings of the original verb, the other another. Compare *deduce* and *deduct; conduce* and *conduct; construe* and *construct; revert* and *reverse*.

337. Nouns (or adjectives) and verbs of Latin origin are often the same in form, but are distinguished by the accent, the noun or adjective having the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the second.

Noun.	*Verb.*	*Noun or Adjective.*	*Verb.*
áccent	accént	óbject	objéct
áffix	affíx	próduce	produce
cóllect	colléct	fréquent	frequént
cóncert	concért	ábsent	absént
cónvert	convért	cómpound	compóund
éxtract	extráct	présent	presént
ínsult	insúlt	rébel	rebél

GREEK PREFIXES.

338. The following prefixes are found in words of Greek origin :—

a or **an** (not). *Anarchy.*
amphi (on both sides, *or* round). *Amphibious, amphitheatre.*
ana (up). *Anabasis, anatomy, analogy.*
anti (against). *Antithesis, antipathy.*
apo (from). *Apogee, apology.*
cata (down). *Catalepsy, catastrophe.*
di (two, *or* in two). *Dissyllable, diphthong.*
dia (through, among). *Diameter, diaphanous.*
ec or **ex** (out of). *Exodus, ecstatic.*
en or **em** (in *or* on). *Emphasis, enema.*
endo (within). *Endosmose.*
epi (upon). *Epilogue, epitaph.*
eu (well). *Euphony, eulogy.*
exo (outside). *Exosmose.*
hyper (over). *Hyperbolical.*
hypo (under). *Hypotenuse, hypothesis.*
meta (implying change). *Metamorphosis.*
para (beside). *Parabola, paraphrase.*
peri (round). *Peristyle, perimeter.*
pro (before). *Program.*
pros (to). *Prosody.*
syn (with, together), modified into *sym* or *syl*. *Syndic, syntax, symbol, syllogism, syllable.*

GREEK SUFFIXES.

339. The following suffixes mark words of Greek origin :—

-e : *catastrophe.*
-y (=ια) : *anatomy, monarchy.*

-ad or **-id** : *Iliad, Æneid, Troad.*
-ic, -tic : *logic, cynic, ethics, arithmetic.*
-ac : *maniac, Syriac.*
-sis, -sy, -se (= σις) : *crisis, emphasis, palsy* (*paralysis*), *hypocrisy, phrensy, eclipse.*
-ma : *diorama, enema.*
-tre, -ter (-τρον) : *centre, meter.*
-st : *iconoclast, sophist, baptist.*
-te, -t (= τηs) : *apostate, comet, patriot.*
-sm : *sophism, spasm, aneurism.*
-isk : *asterisk, obelisk.*
-ize (in verbs) : *baptize, criticize.* This termination and its derivatives have been imitated in modern formations, as *minimize, theorize, deism, egotism* (or *egoism*), *egotist* (or *egoist*), *annalist, papist.*

Hybrid Forms.

340. When a compound or derived word is made up of elements derived from different languages, it is called a *hybrid* (*hybrida* = *mongrel*, from Greek ὕβρις), as *falsehood, politely.* Some writers speak as if all such formations were faulty, and lay down as a rule that "in derived words all the parts must belong to one and the same language." This is quite a mistake. When a word of foreign origin has been thoroughly naturalized in English, it is capable of receiving all the inflexions, prefixes, and affixes which are employed in English. If this were not the case we could not decline such words when they are nouns or conjugate them when they are verbs. Such words as *falsehood, grateful, unjust, rudeness, doubtless, useless, artful, accuser, seducer, politeness, grandfather, conceited, readable, martyrdom, wondrous* are all hybrids, the stem and the prefix or suffix being the one of English, the other of classical origin; but any rule which would condemn such formations should be rejected as arbitrary and groundless. The following principle, however, is observed in the formation of derivatives:—If a derived word has been formed by means of an English suffix, and a secondary derivative has to be formed by means of a prefix, the prefix should be English. If the suffix of the first derivative is of classical origin, the prefix should be classical. Thus we say *undecided* and *indecisive, un-* and *-ed* being both English, *in-* and *-ive* both Latin. So *ungrateful, ingratitude; unjustly, injustice.* But one or two suffixes of Latin origin (like *-able*) are treated as if of English origin, as in *unspeakable.*

Disguised and Mutilated Forms.

Words compounded of Latin elements have often undergone considerable mutilation, so that they are not easy to recognize. Thus *ostrich* = *avis struthio*; *constable* = *comes stabuli*; *parsley* = *petroselinum*; *bittern* comes from *mugi-taurus*, corrupted into *bugi-taurus*; *megrim* (Fr. *migraine*) = *hemi-cranium*, 'a pain affecting half the head'; *bustard* = *avis tardus*; *jeopardy* = *jocus partitus* (a sportive venture, consisting in a choice between two alternatives); *copperas* = *cupri rosa*; *porpoise* = *porcus piscis*; *porcupine* = *porcus spinosus*; *vinegar* = *vinum acre* (*alegar* is '*eager*' or *sour ale*); *verdict* = *vere dictum*; *verjuice* = *viridum jus*; *viscount* = *vice-comes*; *grandam, granny* (through French

grande dame) = *grandis domina*; *gramercy* = *grand merci*; *rosemary* = *ros marinus*; *maugre* = *male gratum*; *van* (*avant*) = *ab ante*; *rear*, *arrear* = *ad retro*; *chanticleer* = *chante clair*; *summons* = *submoneas*; *kerchief** = *couvre chef*; *curfew* = *couvre-feu*; *tennis* = *tenez*, 'catch'; *lamprey* = *lambe petram*, 'lickstone,' from its habit of adhering to rocks by suction; *agree* (originally an adverb *a gré*) = *ad gratum*; *dandelion* = *dent de lion*; *alert* = Ital. *all'erta* (*erta* from *erectus*); *alarm* = Ital *all'arme* 'to arms' (from *arma*). Verbs in *-fy* usually represent compounds of *-ficare*, as *edify*, *mortify*, *deify*. Cry (Fr. *crier* from Provençal *cridar*) is from *quiritare*, said by Varro to mean 'to shout to the *Quirites* for help.' *Defy* is from *fidere*.

CHANGES IN LATIN WORDS PASSING THROUGH FRENCH.

341. An attentive examination of § 328, &c., will show the usual changes that are to be looked for when a Latin word has passed through French into English. The following (amongst others of less difficulty) should be borne in mind :—

1. *b* often vanishes from between vowels. Compare *sudden* and *subitaneus*.

2. *c* or *g* often vanishes when it occurs before a dental or between vowels. Compare *feat* and *factum*, *sure* and *securus*, *pay* and *pacare*, *deny* and *denegare*, *display* and *displicare*, *rule* and *regula*, *seal* and *sigillum*, *allow* and *allocare*.

3. *d* or *t* vanishes. Compare *prey* and *praeda*, *ray* and *radius*, *chair* and *cathedra*, *cue* and *cauda*, *roll* and *rotulus*, *round* and *rotundus*, *treason* and *tradition*, *esquire* and *scutarius*, and look at *chance*, *obey*, *recreat*, *defy*, *fay*, &c.

4. Initial *c* becomes *ch*, as in *chief*, *chance*, *chandler*, *chant*, *change*.

5. The consonantal force of *ll* disappears; as in *couch* from *collocare*, *beauty* from *bellitas*, &c.

6. *b* or *p* becomes *v* or *f*, as in *chief* (*caput*), *ravin* (*rapio*), *river* (*riparius*), *cover* (*co-operire*), *van* (*ab-ante*).

7. *di* before a vowel becomes soft *g* or *ch* or *j*, as in *siege* (*assedium*), *journey* (*diurnata*), *preach* (*praedicare*), *Jane* (*Diana*).

8. *ti* undergoes a similar change, as in *voyage* (*viaticum*), *age* (*aetaticum*).

9. *bi*, *pi*, *vi* before a vowel becomes *ge* or *dge*,† as in *abridge* (*abbreviare*), *change* (*cambiare*), *plunge* (*plumbicare*), *rage* (*rabies*), *deluge* (*diluvium*), *assuage* (*ad-suavis*), *sage* (*sapio*).

10. *l*, *n*, and *r* intrude, as in *corporal* (*caporal*), *culprit*, *principle*, *syllable*, *messenger*, *passenger*, *vagrant*.

11. *g* appears before *n* and *t*, as in *foreign*, *sovereign*, *impregnable* (*prendre*), *spright* (*spiritus*).

* The sense of *head* (*chef*) so completely disappeared, that the secondary compound *handkerchief* was formed; in which again the meaning of *hand* was disregarded, so that the word *neckhandkerchief* was made, which literally ought to mean 'a *head*-covering used for the *hands* tied round the *neck*.'

† These sounds are modifications of the French soft *g* or *j*, into which the *i* before the vowel was developed. When this took place the *b*, *p*, or *v* disappeared.

12. *d* and *t* appear after *n*, as in *gender*, *tyrant*, *ancient*, *sound*.

13. Initial syllables sometimes disappear, as *ticket* (*étiquette*), *sterling* (*Easterling*), *mend* (*amend*), *pert* (*apertus*), *censer* (*incenser*), *gin* (*engine*), *sport* (*disport*), *fender* (*defender*), &c.

14. *l* replaces *r*, as in *marble*, *purple*.

A Latin word adopted in old English or brought in through French has sometimes been re-introduced at a later period directly from the Latin. In that case the older word shows a more mutilated form than the later. Compare *bishop* and *episcopal*; *minster* and *monastery*; *priest* and *presbyter*; *pistol* and *epistle*; *balm*, *balsam*; *sure*, *secure*.

Sometimes the older form has kept its ground with a different shade of meaning. Compare *penance* and *penitence*; *blame* and *blasphemy*; *chalice* and *calix*; *forge* and *fabric*; *countenance* and *continence*; *feat* and *fact*; *defeat* and *defect*; *poor* and *pauper*; *ray* and *radius*; *treason* and *tradition*; *frail* and *fragile*; *loyal* and *legal*; *couch* and *collocate*.

There has also been a tendency to reject corruptions, and bring words back again to their original form. Compare *aferme* and *affirm*; *auter* and *altar*; *coler* and *collar*; *scoler* and *scholar*; *noterer* and *notary*; *dotyr* and *doctor*; *parfyt* and *perfect*; *sotil* and *subtile*; *dortoure* and *dormitory*; *caitiff* and *captive*; *aunterous* and *adventurous*.

Proper names are often curiously disguised in common words. Thus *dunce* is merely the name of the celebrated schoolman *Duns Scotus*; *tawdry* is a corruption of *St. Audrey* (*Ethelreda*), a fair at which gaudy wares were sold having been held on her feast-day; *grog* is so called after Admiral Vernon, who first served out to his sailors rum mixed with water, and was nicknamed *Old Grog* from a cloak of *grogram* which he was in the habit of wearing; *tram-ways* are named after their inventor *Outram*; *cordwainers* dealt in *Cordovan* leather; a *lumber-room* was a room in which *Lombard* pawnbrokers kept the goods pledged with them; *sarcenet* was made by the *Saracens*; *cambric* was made at *Cambray*; *cherries* came from *Cerasus*; *damsons* from *Damascus*; *shalloon* was made at *Chalons*; *copper* was named from *Cyprus*; *muslin* came from *Mossul* on the Tigris.

SYNTAX.

342. The word **syntax** means **arrangement** (Greek *syn*, together, *taxis*, arrangement). The rules of syntax are statements of the ways in which the words of a sentence are related to each other.

343. A **sentence** is a collection of words of such kinds, and arranged in such a manner, as to make some complete sense.

By "making some complete sense" is meant, that *something is said about something*.

It is plain, therefore, that every ordinary sentence must consist of two essential parts :—

1. **That which denotes what we speak about.** This is called the **Subject.***

2. **That which denotes what is said about that of which we speak.** This is called the **Predicate.**

344. The functions of the different Parts of Speech and of their grammatical forms are based upon this primary relation.

345. It is the essential function of a Substantive (Noun or Pronoun) to denote some thing † about which we speak. It is the essential function of a verb to denote what is said (or predicated) respecting that of which we are speaking. The fact that a substantive is the subject of a sentence is indicated by its being in the nominative case. The fact that a verb is the predicate of a sentence is indicated by its being in some finite ‡ form. What we can predicate of a thing is that it does something, or that it is in some state or condition. The functions of Number, Mood, and Tense have already been described (§§ 47, 189, &c., 203, &c.).

346. The actions or states of things bring them into various relations to other things. It was the function of the oblique cases (§ 65) of substantives to indicate these relations.§ By attaching a substantive in an oblique case to a verb, the action or state described by the verb is limited, or more closely defined. "John struck," or "John went," may be said of a great number of *strikings* or *goings*, but "John struck *the ball*," "John went *home*," are statements in which the predicate is *limited* or *more closely defined.*

347. A Substantive may, in most cases, stand for any one out of an indefinite number of things, as *horse*, *child*. The possible number of things of which a noun may be the name is limited when we specify certain marks or qualities of that which we intend to speak about. It was the function of Adjectives to limit the possible signification of nouns by denoting these marks or qualities (§ 88).

Thus "*white* horse," or "*this little* child" stands for a smaller number of objects than 'horse' or 'child.' Adjectives were inflected to indicate their connection with the nouns which they defined. As adjectives denote actions or states of things, they may be themselves limited by oblique cases of substantives.

348. We thus get the functions of the primary parts of speech

* The grammatical subject of a sentence (which is a *word*) must not be confounded with the *thing* that is spoken about. In 'birds fly,' the predicate 'fly' is *attached* to the (grammatical) subject 'birds,' but *flying* is *predicated* of the *creatures* named by the noun.

† A *thing* is whatever we can make a separate object of thought.

‡ That is, a form that marks Number and Person.

§ Thus (speaking roughly, and taking the cases of Latin or Anglo-Saxon) the Genitive Case marked *whence* the action proceeded; the Accusative Case marked the *range* of the action, including *the point to which it was directed;* the Dative Case marked the *locality* of the action, or the thing indirectly affected by it; the Ablative or Instrumental Case marked *by what* the action was performed, or some attendant circumstance of the action. But the original function of *one and all* of them was to limit or define the signification of words denoting the actions or states of things.

(the substantive, the verb, and the adjective), and their inflexions. The substantive indicates by its form the relation in which it stands to the verb. In the nominative case it is the Subject, in any oblique case it limits the Predicate. The Substantive is limited by the Adjective, and the Adjective in its turn is limited by oblique cases of the Substantive.

349. The further development of language is based upon these relations of its primary* elements. It has been shown (§ 267, &c.) how the Adverb is nothing more than an oblique case of a Noun or Pronoun which has become petrified or hardened into a distinct Part of Speech; and again (§ 279) how the Preposition was at first nothing more than an Adverb, and (§ 290) how what is a Preposition, when it marks the relation between two *notions*, becomes a Conjunction when it marks the relation between two *thoughts*. The primary Parts of Speech stand for *notions*, these secondary Parts of Speech represent *relations*. The limiting functions of the oblique cases of substantives were shared by adverbs, and by combinations of a preposition and a substantive; and all these *limiting* or *defining adjuncts* came to be attached to substantives through the intervention of some adjective (usually a participle) which was afterwards dropped. Thus "The book [lying] on the table" came to be denoted by "The book on the table"; "The light [coming] of *or* off the sun" became 'The light of the sun' (= 'the sun's light'). The possessive case in English is now used solely in this way.†

RELATION OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

350. All the relations that subsist between the words and groups of words of which a sentence is built up, may be ranged under these three heads:—

1. The Predicative Relation.

2. The Attributive Relation.

3. The Adverbial Relation.

351. The **Predicative Relation** is that which subsists between the cardinal elements of a sentence—the Subject and the Predicate.

352. The other two Relations are those through which the other elements of a sentence are attached directly or indirectly to the Subject and the Predicate respectively.

353. (1) The **Attributive Relation** is that borne to a substantive by any word or combination of words which limits or defines it (§ 347).

(2) The **Adverbial Relation** is that borne to a verb or

* The word 'primary' is here used in quite a modified sense, as having reference to inflected languages like Latin or Anglo-Saxon, which have reached an advanced stage of development from the first rude beginnings of speech.

† In Anglo-Saxon (as in modern German) it was freely attached, as a limiting or adverbial adjunct, to verbs and adjectives.

adjective by any word or combination of words which limits it, or narrows the range of its signification.*

THE PREDICATIVE RELATION.

354. The **Predicative Relation** is that in which the predicate of a sentence stands to its subject.†

355. In Logic, the *subject* of a proposition is *the entire description* of that which is spoken of: the *predicate* is *all that is employed* to represent the idea which is connected with the subject. Thus, in "This boy's father gave him a book," the subject is "this boy's father;" the predicate is "gave him a book." But in grammar, the single noun *father* is called the subject, and *gave* the predicate, the words connected with *father* and *gave* being treated as enlargements or adjuncts of the subject and predicate.

356. In Logic propositions are always reduced to the form of which "Gold is yellow" may be taken as a type; that is, two *terms* (as they are called) are united by the verb *is, are,* &c. Of these *terms* the first is called the subject, the second the predicate, and the intervening verb, *is, are,* &c., is called the *copula* or *link.* In grammar this is needless, and would be very troublesome.‡ "Time flies," or "Tempus fugit," is a complete sentence *as it stands.* The business of grammar is to take it and show of what it consists, not to substitute for it something of a different form. Accordingly in grammar the only *copula* or *link* which is recognized as attaching the predicative idea to the subject,

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* Dr. K. F. Becker's arrangement is substantially the same as the above. He classes under one and the same head every kind of expression (oblique cases of substantives, adverbs, or substantives preceded by prepositions) by which a verb or adjective is *limited;* but to everything of this sort he applies the term '*Object*', so that an 'Object' in his system may stand not only for that to which an action is directed, but for the time, place, manner, cause, or source of the action. This terminology rests upon a metaphysical application of the terms 'subjective' and 'objective' which would be unintelligible to most English learners. A verb like *laughs, sleeps,* &c., which does not necessarily bring the subject into relation to anything else, is called by Becker '*a subjective verb.*' A verb like *strikes, stands, went, came,* &c., which brings the subject into relation to something else (as in 'he strikes *the ball*'; 'he stands *on the chair*'; 'he went *to York*'; 'he came *from Paris*'), is called by him '*an Objective Verb,*' and whatever is used to complete or define the notion expressed by an Objective Verb is termed by him the 'Object' of that verb. It may be urged as an objection to his terminology that this distinction between Subjective and Objective verbs is open to question, and has been adopted through the temptation offered by the convenient jingle of the contrasted terms. In 'John strikes' the verb 'strikes,' so far as its relation to 'John' is concerned, is quite as *subjective* as 'laughs,' in 'John laughs.' The action, *as an action,* is entirely restricted to 'John'; there is no 'striking' involved which is not *John's* 'striking.' But, be that as it may, Becker's use of the word 'Object' is so different from what English learners are accustomed to in our current grammatical manuals, that its introduction would be productive of endless confusion. This difficulty is avoided by ranging (as Mätzner does) every kind of adjunct which Becker calls an 'Object,' under the head of '*Adverbial Limitations.*' Everything which limits or completes the notion expressed by a verb is *adverbial* through the very fact that it is attached to the verb, and it will be shown further on that there is no sufficient reason for separating the object of a transitive verb from the rest.

† A relation of this sort is, of course, reciprocal. In the sentence, "The boy ran away," while *ran* is in the predicative relation to *boy, boy* is in its turn in the *subjective* relation to *ran.* But as these are only two different modes of viewing the *same* grammatical combination, a separate classification is unnecessary.

‡ Grammarians who try to foist the *logical* copula 'is' into grammar are careful not to travel beyond such examples as "Man is mortal," or "The bird is flying." The task of dealing with such a sentence as "John went to London," they leave to their unfortunate learners.

consists of the personal inflexion of the verb. The copula is therefore regarded as a part of the predicate. Thus in the sentence "Time flies," *time* is called the subject, and *flies* the predicate.

357. The connection between the Subject and the Predicate may assume more forms than one.

358. 1. When it is our intention to declare that the connection between what the subject stands for and what the predicate stands for, either *does* or *does not* exist, the sentence is **declarative**;* as, "Thomas left the room."

2. When it is our wish to know whether the connection referred to subsists, the sentence is **interrogative**; as, "Did Thomas leave the room?"

3. When we express our *will* or *wish* that the connection between what the subject stands for and what the predicate denotes should subsist, the sentence that results is called an **imperative** or **optative** sentence; as, "Thomas, leave [thou] the room," "May you speedily recover."

4. When we merely *think* of the connection as subsisting, without declaring or willing it, we get a **conceptive** sentence. Sentences of this kind can only be used in combination with others. (See § 192.)

359. In all these forms the *grammatical connection* between the verb and its subject is the same.

360. The predicative relation to the subject may be sustained by a verb, or by a verb of incomplete predication and its complement. (See § 392.) In the sentence, "The boy ran away," the verb *ran* is in the predicative relation to the subject *boy*. In the sentence, "The ball is round," not only the verb *is* but the adjective *round* belongs to the predicate, and is in the predicative relation to the subject 'ball.'†

THE ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION.

361. When to a noun or pronoun we attach an adjective, or what is equivalent to an adjective, that is to say a word, phrase, or clause by which we indicate more precisely that for which the noun or pronoun stands by stating some quality that it possesses, or its quantity, or its relation to something else, this adjective or its equivalent stands in the **Attributive Relation** to the noun or pronoun, and is said to be an **Attributive Adjunct** to it.

ATTRIBUTIVE ADJUNCTS.

362. Attributive adjuncts may be of the following kinds:—

1. **An Adjective or participle,** either used simply, or accompanied by adjuncts of its own; as, "*A large* apple, *many* men;" "the soldier, *covered with wounds*, still fought."

* The negative, if there is one, is taken as part of the predicate.

† The more minute discussion of the different forms of the Subject and Predicate will be found in §§ 378; 384; 389.

2. **A noun in apposition** to the substantive; as, "John Smith, *the baker*, said so," or a substantive clause in apposition to some substantive, as "The report *that he was killed* is untrue," where the clause *that he was killed* is in apposition to *report.*

We have some instances of apposition, such as 'A hundred sheep'; 'A thousand men'; in which originally the second noun * was in the genitive case ('A hundred of sheep,' &c.). In other cases the preposition *of* has replaced apposition, as, 'What manner of man is this.' In Chaucer we should have, 'No maner wight,' 'A barrel ale.'

3. **A substantive in the possessive case**; as, "My **father's** house"; "**John's** book"; "The man **whose** house was burnt down," or a substantive preceded by *of*, used as the equivalent of the genitive case in any of its meanings; as, "One **of us**"; "The leader **of the party**"; "The love **of money.**"†

Nouns or pronouns in the Possessive Case are so like adjectives that in old English the possessive cases of the personal pronouns were declined as adjectives (just as *cujus* was in Latin). In German we often find adjectives in *-sch* instead of nouns in the genitive.

4. **A substantive preceded by a preposition**; as, "A horse *for riding*"; "Water *to drink*"; "The trees *in the garden*"; "A time *to weep.*" A simple adverb may be used in a similar way, as "The house *here*"; "An *outside* passenger"; "The *then* state of affairs." These may be called *quasi-attributive adjuncts* of the noun.

This construction had its origin in the use of an adjective or participle which was afterwards dropped, as in Greek *οἱ νῦν ἄνθρωποι* is *οἱ νῦν ὄντες ἄνθρωποι.* 'An outside passenger' is 'An outside riding passenger'; 'The then state' is 'The then existing state,'‡ &c.

5. **An Adjective Clause**; as, "They *that will be rich* fall into temptation"; "I have found the piece *which I had lost.*"

The **Relative** (or Adjective) **Clause,** containing a finite verb, is sometimes replaced by a **Relative Phrase,** containing a verb in the infinitive mood,§ as "Where there is then no good *for which to strive.*"

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* With the plural '*of*' reappears, as 'hundreds of pounds,' 'dozens of times.'

† One curious use of *of* is that in which it replaces the relation of apposition, as in "The month of June"; "The island of Sardinia"; "A brute of a fellow"; "A milksop of a boy." The genitive is similarly employed sometimes in Latin.

‡ As the mention of a thing presupposes its *being* (at least *notionally*, which is all that is necessary) the omission of that which indicates *being* is very easy. When a noun is used *attributively* (§ 362, 2) it may be qualified by an adverb just like any other attributive word, as "This man, *once the possessor* of a large fortune."

It is not always easy to distinguish an adjunct of this kind when attached to the *object* of a verb from an adverbial adjunct of the verb itself. In "Let me have something *to eat*," or "He that hath *ears to hear*," it does not matter in which way it is taken. In "I gave him a lesson *to learn*," "She gave me this letter *to post*," the gerundial infinitive is an adverbial adjunct of the predicate.

§ These *phrases* may perhaps be regarded as *elliptical clauses*, 'No good for which *we are* to strive,' or something of the kind. Sometimes the pronoun disappears, as 'I have not a pen to write with,' where there is nothing for the preposition *with* to govern. Being the residuum of an adverbial adjunct ('with which') 'with' must now be treated as an adverb.

363. It is difficult to say how we should class those instances in which an adverb or adverbial phrase is attached to a noun by virtue of the idea of *action* which the noun involves,* as "Our return *home*" (compare 'We returned home'); "His journey *to Paris*" ('He journeyed to Paris'); "The revolt of the Netherlands *from Spain*" ('The Netherlands revolted from Spain'); "Progress *towards completion*," &c. So far as the adjunct limits a noun, it is *attributive;* but inasmuch as it limits the notion of some *action*, it is *adverbial.*

364. One attributive adjunct may often be replaced by another. Thus, for "The king's palace" we may say 'The palace of the king,' or 'The palace which belongs to the king,' or 'The palace belonging to the king,' &c. An attributive adjunct sometimes (especially in poetry) expresses a *condition*, and may be replaced by an adverbial clause. Thus, in "Foreknowledge had no influence on their fault, which had no less proved certain unforeknown" (*Milton*), *unforeknown* is equivalent to 'if it had been unforeknown.'

365. Attributive adjuncts may be used in two ways. (1) They may be *distinguishing* or *defining*, as when we say, 'A *black* horse,' or '*Four* men.' Here *black* and *four* distinguish the thing or things referred to from others comprehended under the same common name. (2) They may be *descriptive, i.e.* adding some additional description to a thing already defined by its name, or by some definitive word, as in "Louis Napoleon, *Emperor of the French;*" "Next came the King, *mounted on a white horse.*"

366. Several attributive adjuncts may be attached to the same substantive. Sometimes they are co-ordinate, as "A *wise, just,* and *powerful* king, *who ruled with firmness and moderation*"; "The *old* house *near the river.*" But sometimes one attribute can be applied only after the substantive has been qualified by another, as in "I honour *all* [men *who love virtue*]."

THE ADVERBIAL RELATION.

367. Any word, phrase, or clause which modifies or limits† a verb, adjective, or attributive phrase is in the Adverbial Relation to it (see §§ 347, 349), or is an Adverbial Adjunct to it.

It is obvious that this definition really includes what is commonly called the **Object** of a verb, which is quite correctly described as **adverbial,** since it is *attached to a verb*, and narrows its signification. But this particular kind of adjunct is usually classed separately in our grammars,‡ and its relation to the verb is spoken of as

* It is the *notional signification* of a verb, not its predicative function, which is qualified by an adverb, or defined by an objective case. Hence gerunds have objects and adverbs attached to them, and some nouns admit of at least an approach to the same construction.

† That is, *narrows the extent of its possible application.* Thus, 'He saw' or 'He went' may be spoken of a larger number of acts than 'He saw the fire,' 'He went to Rome.' Similarly, 'He is angry' is limited when we say 'He is angry *at your folly.*'

‡ The sharp distinction which the usual classification makes between the object and the other limiting adjuncts of a verb does not exist in reality. Had it been real, language would have marked it by giving to the object a distinct case of its own. In fact, however, we find that in inflected languages like Latin the accusative case is used to mark several related ideas (including the Objective Relation) which admit of being classed as species of one com-

THE OBJECTIVE RELATION.

368. When a verb, participle, or gerund denotes an action which is directed towards some object, the word denoting that object stands in the **objective relation** to the verb, participle, or gerund. Thus, in "The dog bites the boy," *boy* is in the objective relation to *bites*. In, "Seeing the tumult, I went out," *tumult* is in the objective relation to *seeing*. In, "Hating one's neighbour is forbidden by the Gospel," *neighbour* is in the objective relation to the gerund *hating*. **The object* of a verb** is the word, phrase, or clause which stands for the object of the action described by the verb. It must of course be a substantive, or the equivalent of one.

369. The object of a verb may be of two kinds, the **Direct Object** and the **Indirect Object.**

A. The **Direct Object** † denotes—

(*a*) The *Passive Object*, or that which suffers or receives the action denoted by the verb, as "He struck *the ball*," "I heard *a noise*."

(*b*) The *Factitive Object*, or that which is the product of the action, as "He wrote *a letter*"; "They made *a noise*."

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mon genus. In "Amo puerum" *puerum* would be called the *Object* of the verb; in "Eo Romam," *Romam* would be treated as having an *adverbial* relation to *eo*. Yet there is no substantial difference between the two In each instance the accusative case marks *the quarter to which* the action is directed. "Amo puerum" means "My love is directed to the boy"; "Eo Romam" means "My going is directed to Rome." (In Spanish the relation of the direct object is marked by the preposition *á*, as though we said "I love to you.") Nay, this is only one form of a more general idea expressed by the accusative, namely, that of *the range within which* an action takes place, so that the accusative of the object is brought into close relation to other uses referring to space and time which are usually classed as adverbial. In English (the syntax of which is of rather a rough and ready kind, ignoring delicate shades of distinction), we find that what we call the *direct object* of a verb has often replaced a genitive or dative, or some combination with a preposition, which we should have had no difficulty in classing as an Adverbial Adjunct. Thus the verbs 'miss,' 'forget,' 'heed' were followed by the genitive in Anglo-Saxon. and later by *of*; 'follow,' 'withstand,' 'forgive' were followed by the dative or 'to.' Many verbs of French origin take a direct object in English which in French were followed by *à* or *de*, as *obey*, *enjoy*, *applaud*, *approach*, *oppose*, *renounce*, *resist*, *resemble*, *pardon*, *please*, *survive*, &c. We get a beautiful and fruitful generalization of the structure of language when we recognize that *all* the oblique cases of a substantive served one common purpose, namely to mark how some thing was brought into relation to something else by means of what it did, or what it was.

* Beware of confounding the *thing* which is the *object of an action* with the *word* which is the grammatical object of a verb. It is most unfortunate that we cannot avoid using the same term for both.

† In many grammars the direct object of a transitive verb is called the *completing object*, or the *completion of the predicate*. The term has been borrowed from Becker, but spoilt in the borrowing. It has been pointed out (see note on § 353) that Becker applies the term '*Object*' to everything which denotes that to which the action or state of a thing has a relation. If the meaning of a verb or adjective is such that we necessarily think of something as being in relation to the action or state which it denotes, he calls the object a 'completing object,' but his 'completing object' would include such instances as 'begs *for bread*'; 'pleased *with the gift*'; 'acquainted *with the way*'; 'stands *on the table*'; 'went *to London*.' This is consistent at any rate. It is unreasonable to maintain that *struck* or *heard* wants to be 'completed,' and that '*went*' or '*looked*' does not. The term *completing object* had better be avoided altogether. We can get on very well without it, and it gets confounded with the *complement of the predicate* which will be dealt with presently.

The Direct Object is that which is expressed in the accusative case in Latin, Greek, German, or Anglo-Saxon.

B. The **Indirect Object** of a verb denotes that which is indirectly affected by an action, but is not the immediate object or product of it, as "Give *him* the book," "Make *me* a coat."*

In Anglo-Sa. on (as in Latin, German, &c.) the **Indirect Object** was expressed by the **Dative Case**. In modern English both sorts of objects are expressed by the **same case, the Objective.** When it represents the Indirect Object, the substantive in the objective case is often preceded by the preposition '*to*' or '*for*,' as 'Give the book *to John*,' 'Make a coat *for me*.'

370. One remarkable result of the amalgamation of the Dative and the Accusative Case into the Objective Case has been, that not only the Direct Object, but in most cases the Indirect Object of an Active Verb may be made the Subject of a Passive Verb. Thus, "I told him† the story" may become either "The story was told him (*or* to him)," or "He was told the story." "They refused him admittance" yields either "Admittance was refused him," or "He was refused admittance." Whichever of the two objects is made the subject of the passive verb, the other object remains attached to the passive verb.‡

Some verbs take two direct objects after them, as "The teacher heard *me my lesson*"; "They asked *me my name*"; "The master taught *the boy French*." In such cases also in the passive construction one of the two objects remains attached to the passive verb, as "I was asked *my name*," or "My name was asked *me*"; "They were taught *obedience*," or "Obedience was taught *them*."

The Direct Object of a verb is not indicated by prepositions.§

ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS.

371. The basis and type of the Adverbial Adjunct is **a substantive in an oblique case,** used to limit or define the signification of a verb or adjective.

* See Shakspeare (*Taming of the Shrew*, i 2) for a humourous illustration of the difference between the dative and the accusative sense of the English Objective Case.

† When the indirect object is expressed simply by the objective case, it must precede the direct object, as 'They gave *John* an apple.' If it is placed after the direct object, *to* or *for* must be introduced, as 'They gave an apple to John.' But the word *it* always comes first, as "Give it me."

‡ In this way a passive verb in English may have an object. The action which is viewed *passively* with regard to one of its objects is still viewed as directed *actively* towards the other. But it is perfectly allowable to treat the object which is left with the passive verb as an *adverbial adjunct* (§ 367).

§ A substantive preceded by a preposition always constitutes either an attributive adjunct (§ 362, 4), or an adverbial adjunct (§ 374, 4). When the preposition is used to denote the relation of a thing to a thing (§ 277), we get an attributive adjunct; when it denotes the relation of an attribute or action of a thing to some other thing, we get an adverbial adjunct. This statement is not invalidated by the remarkable freedom of English in the use of the Passive Voice. "I am speaking of you" is precisely analogous to the French "Je parle de vous," the German "Ich spreche von dir," and the Latin "Loquor de te." Nobody would for a moment admit that *locquor de* makes a *compound transitive verb*, and that *de* has ceased to be a preposition and become an adverb united to the verb. Yet we can say in English, "This was spoken of;" but so can we also say, "He was taken care of," "He was promised a new coat." (See § 187.)

In Anglo-Saxon the Genitive, Dative, and Accusative were all used for this purpose.* In modern English the Genitive or Possessive Case is no longer used adverbially, except in some adverbs which were once genitive cases of substantives (§ 267, 1); but the Objective Case (which represents both the Dative and the Accusative) either by itself, or preceded by a preposition, forms a common adverbial adjunct.

372. Besides the object of a verb, which has already been discussed, we get the following **Adverbial Adjuncts.**

1. **A Noun in the Objective Case,** usually with, but sometimes without an attributive adjunct, and representing sometimes an older genitive, sometimes a dative, and sometimes an accusative. This objective case is used to mark—

(*a*) **Extent or direction in space,** as "He lives *miles* away"; "He walked *ten miles*"; "Go *that way*"; "We returned *another way.*"†

(*b*) **Duration of time** or **time when,** as "We stayed there *all the summer*"; "*All day* long"‡; "He arrived *last night*"; "*Day* by day"; "*Night* after night"; "I waited *days and days* for him"; "He wore the same dress *summer and winter.*"

(*c*) **Manner, Measure** or **Degree,** or **Attendant Circumstance,** as "They went over *dry foot*"; "The ship drove *full sail*"; "He came *post haste*"; "*Step* by step"; "He is not *a bit* like his brother"; "I don't care § *a button* for him"; "*What* need we any further witness?"; "Bound *hand* and *foot*"; "A *hundred times* better"; "*Three furlongs* ‖ broad"; "*Six years* ¶ old"; "Worth *ten pounds*"; "Not worth *the cost*"; "Worthy *the owner* and the owner *it*" (*Shaksp.*); "*What trade* art thou?" (*Shaksp.*); "He is just *my age.*"

2. **A Substantive in the Objective Case,** supplying the place of an older Dative, as "He looks like *me*"; "You are nearest *the door.*" The Indirect Object really belongs to this class.

3. What is often termed the **cognate accusative** or objective (as in 'to run *a race*,' 'to die *a happy death*') should more properly be classed among the adverbial adjuncts.** In Anglo-Saxon the dative

* For example "Gilpes þú girnest" (thou yearnest *for fame*); "gódes grædig" (greedy *after good*); "módes blíðe" (blithe *of mind*); "eágum geseah" (saw *with eyes*); "þý sixtan mónðe" (*in the sixth month*); "ealne weg" (*all the way*). The genitive had a very wide range of use as an adverbial adjunct. (See March, *A.S. Grammar*, § 309, &c.)

† In A.S. the genitive case was used here "oðres wæges." (See *Chron.* 1006.)

‡ *Long* here is for *along*. In A.S. it is "andlangne dæg," *andlang* being an adjective, meaning 'extending without interruption' (Lat. *continuus*).

§ 'Care' is not a transitive verb, and therefore cannot have 'button' as a direct object.

‖ In cases like this the genitive was used in Anglo-Saxon, as "þreora furlanga brâd" (three furlongs broad). This genitive is represented in old English by *of*, as "Let a gallows be made *of fifty cubits* high" (*Esther* v. 14); "He was of eyghte and thrytty yer old" (*Rob. of Gl.*). The *dative* was used in defining a comparative. *Much* (as in *much better*) or *little* (as in *little more*) were datives, 'miclum' and 'lytlum.' '*A foot* taller' means 'taller *by a foot*.'

¶ Sometimes cut down to the numeral, as "She is seventeen."

** The cognate objective sometimes appears in a metaphorical shape, as in "To look *daggers* at a person"; "To rain *fire and brimstone.*" The vague pronoun *it* is freely used in this construction, as, "We shall have to rough *it*"; "Go *it*, boys," &c.

was used in some cases, as "Men libban þam life" (Men live *that life*); "He feaht miclum feohtum" (He fought *great fights*). The accusative was also common. See *Koch*, ii. p. 94.

There is not the smallest objection to treating the objective case used with a passive verb when the active takes two objects, as an Adverbial Adjunct. See note † on § 370.

4. **A substantive preceded by a preposition**; as, "He hopes *for success*"; "I heard *of his arrival*"; "He killed the bird *with a stone*"; "He is fond *of reading*"; "All *but* * *one* were present."

The gerundial infinitive (§ 192) often forms an adverbial adjunct of a verb or adjective; *e.g.*, "He toils *to earn a living*"; "He strives *to succeed*"; "We eat *to live*"; "He has gone *to fetch his hat*"; "This food is not fit *to eat*"; "This coat is too good *to give away*"; "This house is *to let* † (=*for letting*)"; "He is *to blame*"; "You are *to give* this to John (compare "I am *for refusing* his request"); "He is a foolish man *to throw away such a chance*." Here *to throw away*, &c., is in the adverbial relation to *foolish*. An adverbial adjunct may also consist of a preposition followed by a substantive clause (see § 290) or by an infinitive mood, as "I was *about to observe*," or by a substantive with an indirect predicate, as "The wind sits fair *for news to go to Ireland*"; "The night is too dark *for us to see*" (see § 397). *But*, followed by an infinitive mood or a clause, often forms an adverbial adjunct; as, 'I cannot *but pity* him"; "I would buy it but that I have no money," where '*but that—money*' forms an adverbial adjunct to *would buy*.

In many adverbial adjuncts of this class the noun preceded by the preposition *of* or *to* was formerly in the genitive or dative case, as, for example, after *full, clean, mindful, guilty, weary*, &c. Prepositional phrases have sometimes replaced direct objects, as in '*to admit of*'; '*to accept of*'; '*to dispose of*'; '*to approve of*,' &c.

5. **A substantive (accompanied by some attributive adjunct) in the nominative or objective‡ absolute**; as, "*The sun having risen*, we commenced our journey." "*He being absent*, nothing could be done." A substantive clause may be used absolutely, like a simple substantive, as, "*Granted this is true*, you are still in the wrong."

* Pay special attention to this preposition '*but*' (§ 284).

† In Anglo-Saxon the *active voice* is always used in phrases of this sort; *e.g.*, "Mannes sunu ys tô syllanne on manna handa" 'the Son of Man is to be given (to give) into the hands of men' (*Matt.* xvii. 22). Compare "You are *to blame* in this." The use of the *active* voice in this and similar phrases shows that the infinitive cannot be regarded as a complement of the predicate, because the *active* idea is not predicated of the subject. In "I saw a house to let," it is obvious that 'to let' forms an attributive adjunct of 'house.'

‡ Some grammarians insist that in these constructions the objective (as the representative of the old dative) is the only proper case, and that the use of the nominative is the result of a mistake. Milton uses both constructions. Thus, "Him destroyed for whom all this was made, all this will follow soon" (*P. L.* ix. 130); "Us dispossessed" (*P. L.* vii. 140). On the other hand, we find "Adam, wedded to another Eve, shall live with her enjoying, I extinct" (*P. L.* ix. 944); "Which who knows but might as ill have happened, thou being by" (*P. L.* ix.). Shakspeare also uses the nominative: "Thou away, the very birds are mute." When the forms adm t of a choice, the nominative is preferred by modern writers. When the abbreviated participle *except* (§ 283) is used, we always find the objective case, as *all except me*. The dative was used in Anglo-Saxon.

Participles may be used absolutely in this manner without having any noun to be attached to (see § 382). In such a sentence as "Speaking generally, this is the case," the phrase 'speaking generally' is an adverbial adjunct of the predicate.

6. **An adverb** * (see § 259); as, "He fought *bravely*." "I set out *yesterday*." "He is *very* industrious."

7. **An adverbial clause**; as, "I will come *when I am ready*"; "I would tell you *if I could*." (See further 'Complex Sentences,' § 401.)

373. One kind of Adverbial Adjunct may often be replaced by another.

Thus for "He suffered *patiently*," we may say "He suffered *with patience*," and *vice versâ*; for "He failed *through carelessness*," we may say "He failed *because he was careless*;" for "*This being granted*, the proof is easy," we may say "*If this be granted*, the proof is easy."

374. Adverbs themselves admit of limitation or qualification as regards *degree*; as, "He writes *very badly*"; "He will be here *almost immediately*." Even a preposition may be modified by an adverb, as "He went *all round* the town"; "He has cut *half through* the beam."

375. When a noun stands in either the predicative or the attributive relation to another substantive, it may have words standing to it in the adverbial relation; as, "Napoleon, lately Emperor of the French."

376. Adverbial adjuncts of all kinds admit of the same classification as simple adverbs. (See § 265 and § 415, &c.)

377. Two or more adverbial adjuncts may be attached to the same verb or adjective. Sometimes they are co-ordinate, as in "He ran *to the spot immediately, as fast as he could*"; "He spoke *calmly* and *without hesitation*." Sometimes one adjunct can be applied only after the verb or adjective has been modified by the other, as in "I will *not* [stand *in your way*]"; "We do *not* [play at cards *every day*]"; "[*Scarce* were they gone] when he ordered them to be recalled."

In some grammars a Predicate to which adverbial adjuncts are attached is said to be *extended*.†

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

378. As both the subject and the verb of a sentence are spoken of the same thing, they must agree with each other in those points which they have in common, that is, in *number* and *person*.

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* The learner may be surprised to see that in this arrangement of Adverbial Adjuncts the Adverb itself has not been put first. The purpose of this is to draw attention to the fact that the Adverbial Objective Case (with or without a preposition before it) is not a makeshift imitation of an independent part of speech, but is a relic of the primary function of the oblique cases of substantives, namely, to limit or define the signification of verbs and adjectives. It is to this that the Adverb itself owes its origin, for Adverbs are (certainly in most cases, and possibly in all) nothing more than inflected forms of nouns and pronouns sometimes with, sometimes without prepositions before them. (See this set forth at length in §§ 266–273.)

† It must be carefully borne in mind that *what is predicated by the verb* is in fact *limited* by these adjuncts.

379. The **subject** of a finite verb is put in the **nominative case.***

380. A noun in the singular number which denotes a *multitude* (as *crowd*, *senate*, *army*, *flock*) may have its verb in the plural number, when the idea to be kept in view is not the *multitude viewed as one whole*, but the *individuals* of which the multitude is composed. As, "The multitude were of one mind." But we should say, "The army *was led* into the defile," because we then speak of the army *as a whole*. In A.S. a *participle* in the plural might be used to qualify a noun of multitude.

381. The verb is put in the plural number when it has for its subject two or more nouns in the singular coupled by the conjunction *and*;† as, "John and Thomas were walking together." But when the compound subject is considered as forming one whole, the verb is kept in the singular; as, "The mind and spirit remains invincible;" "Hill and valley rings" (*Par. L.* ii. 495); "Wherein doth sit *the dread and fear* of kings" (*Shakspeare, M. of V.*).

382. Every finite verb must have a subject in the nominative case expressed or understood.‡

Such a sentence as, "That is the man whom I heard was ill," is faulty, because the verb *was* is left without a subject; the relative pronoun, which ought to be the subject, being wrongly put in the objective case.§ It should be, "That is the man who, I heard, was ill." "I will give this to whomsoever wants it" is faulty in a similar way. *Wants* must have *whosoever* for its subject.

The subject of a verb is sometimes understood, as "I have a mind presages me such thrift," for '*which* presages,' &c.; "So far as [it] in him lies"; "*Do* [he] what he will, he cannot make matters

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* Let the learner beware of the slovenly habit of saying that a verb agrees with its *nominative case*. The subject of a verb is not *a form*, but *a substantive in a certain form*.

† The preposition '*with*' sometimes answers the same purpose, as "Gedaliah, who with his brethren and son were twelve" (1 *Chron.* xxv 9).

‡ In A.S. we find passive and other impersonal verbs used absolutely without any subject expressed or understood. Thus "þám ylcan dóme þe gé démað eów byð gedémed" ('with the same judgment that ye judge, to you [it] shall be judged'); "hine hyngrede" ('him hungered'). Compare the Latin *tonat, pluit, pugnatum est*, &c. The word *it* that we now use is the mere ghost of a subject.

The use of the impersonal verb was formerly much more common. Thus in old writers we find 'it glads me'; 'it pities me'; 'him shall never thirst' (*John* iv. 14); 'me lists'; 'me longeth'; 'if you liketh' (*Chaucer*); 'me remembreth of the day of doom' (*Chaucer*); "me forthinketh" ('repents me'); 'it recks me not' (Milton); 'hem (= them) neδeth' (*Piers Pl.*); 'me wondreth'; 'me dremed' (*Chaucer*). Conversely several impersonal expressions with a dative of the person have been turned into personal ones with a nominative of the person, as 'I please' (for 'it pleases me'); 'he was loth' (for 'loth him was'); 'he were better his dethe to take' (for 'it were better for him to take his death,' *Townl. M.* p 187); 'to do what I am best' (*ib.* p. 70); 'you were best to go to bed' (*Shaksp.*), &c. See Mätzner iii. p. 3.

§ The construction of a relative or interrogative pronoun may always be tested by that of a demonstrative pronoun used in its stead. The construction of "Whom I heard was ill," would be the same as that of "I heard him was ill."

worse." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted.*

383. Every noun, pronoun, or substantive phrase used as a subject ought to have a verb attached to it as predicate.

But for the sake of giving greater prominence to the subject, it is sometimes mentioned first, and then repeated by means of a demonstrative pronoun, as "The Lord, He is the God."

Also in subordinate clauses with *if* and *when*, where a relative pronoun is the subject, there is the difficulty that the relative must come first, and yet the subject must not be separated from the verb by *if* or *when*.† The older writers in such cases repeated the subject relative in the form of a demonstrative, as "A right noble lord, *who*, had *he* not sacrificed his life, &c." (*Milton*); "Lend it rather to thine enemy *who* if *he* break, thou mayst with better face exact the penalty" (*Merch. Ven.*).

SUBJECT.

384. The subject of a sentence may be—

1. Simple. 2. Compound. 3. Complex.

385. The subject of a sentence is simple when it is—

1. A single **Substantive** (Noun or Pronoun), as "*Men* are mortal," "*I* love truth."
2. An **Infinitive Mood** or **Gerund**, as "*To err* is human;" "*Loving* one's enemies is a Christian duty."
3. Any **word** which is itself **made the subject of discourse**, every word being *a name for itself*, as "*Thou* is a personal pronoun."

386. The subject of a sentence is compound when it consists of two or more substantives coupled together by the conjunction *and*; as, "Cæsar and Pompey were rivals." "You and I will travel together."‡

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* If the relation of the Subject and the Predicate is not obvious from the form of the words (as it is in 'I am,' 'thou seest,' 'he lives,'), the learner should determine the subject of any given finite verb by the exercise of his intelligence, discarding all mechanical rules and tests. In most cases the subject of a declarative sentence precedes the verb, but sometimes it does not, especially in poetry, as "There stood a marble wall, wrought cunningly." Some time ago there was an affected fashion of employing this inversion, which was ridiculed in the following parody:—

"So, when 'dogs' meat' re-echoes through the streets,
"Rush sympathetic curs from their retreats;
"Beam with bright blaze their supplicating eyes,
"Sink their hind-legs, ascend their joyful cries;
"Each, wild with hope, and maddening to prevail,
"Points the pleased ear, and wags the expectant tail."

† This difficulty does not present itself in Latin. In *qui si dedisset*, 'qui' is the subject of *dedisset*.

‡ Many grammarians insist that in cases of this kind we are to regard the sentence as a contraction of two co-ordinate sentences joined by *and*. This explanation might do very well for such a sentence as, "John and William are eleven years old"; that is, "John is eleven years old, and William is eleven years old"; but it is simply absurd when applied to such sentences as "Two and three make five," "He and I are of the same age"; "Blue and yellow make green." The conjunction is sometimes omitted, as "Where Nature, Freedom, Art, smile hand in hand" (*Campbell*).

The conjunctions *either—or, neither—nor*, do not couple substantives together so as to form a compound subject. They imply that *one* of two alternatives is to be taken. Hence if each subject is singular the verb must be singular. Thus, "Either he or his brother was in fault;" "Neither John nor Thomas has arrived."

387. The subject of a sentence is complex when it consists of **an infinitive phrase, of a substantive clause,*** or of a **quotation;** as, "Better *be with the dead*"; "Me chaunced *of a knight encountered be*" (*Spenser*); "*How to do it* is the question"; "*That he said so* is certain"; "'England expects every man to do his duty,' was Nelson's watchword."

A complex subject is very often anticipated by the pleonastic use of the neuter pronoun **it,** which serves as **a temporary substitute for the real subject,** the grammatical relation of which to the verb it indicates more concisely. Thus: "*It* is wicked *to tell lies;*" "*It* is certain *that he said so.*"†

Enlarged or Expanded Subject.

388. The subject of a sentence may have attached to it any attributive adjunct (§ 362) or any combination of attributive adjuncts (see § 399), as,

"*The* man told a lie" (*Demonst. Adj.*).
"*Good* men love virtue" (*Adj. of Quality*).
"Edward *the Black Prince* did not succeed his father" (*Noun in Apposition*).
"*John's new* coat, *which he was wearing for the first time,* was torn" (1. *Noun in Poss. Case,* 2. *Adj. of Quality,* 3. *Adj. Clause*).

If the subject is a verb in the infinitive mood, or a gerund, it may be accompanied by objective or adverbial adjuncts, as,

"*To rise early* is healthful."
"*To love one's enemies* is a Christian duty."
"*Playing with fire* is dangerous."

* In the older writers we often have a substantive with an indirect predicate in the infinitive mood (§ 397) used instead of a substantive clause as the subject of a verb. Thus: "No wonder is *a lewed man to ruste*," Chaucer, *Prol.* 504); "It is shame *you to bete him*," *Townl. M.* p. 198). In Chaucer, Shakspeare, &c., we often find the infinitive with *for to* instead of *to* (as 'unto a poure ordre *for to give* is signe, &c., *Ch. Prol.* 225). This form of the infinitive was used as an indirect predicate, as "it spedith *o man for to deie* for the peple" (Wycliffe, *John* xviii. 14). This construction is preserved (with a slight alteration in the arrangement of the words) in such expressions as "It is a rare thing *for a man to be perfectly content*," that is, '*That a man should be perfectly content* is a rare thing.'

† In such sentences as "There was a man of the Pharisees, &c.," there is not the least necessity for regarding *there* as a temporary substitute for the subject. It is a mere adverb, having its proper (though very weakened) force. It answers to the French *y* in 'il y a' where the *subject* is *il*. It represents in an indefinite, shadowy way *the circumstances in which* the predication is made. In the French phrase *il y a*, 'il' = the whole aggregate of circumstances before us, 'y' = in the particular case referred to, 'a' = has or involves so and so. In the Northern dialect *that* or *it* was used, '*It* is na man' = '*there* is no man': '*that* is na clerc' = '*there* is no clerk.'

PREDICATE.

389. The Predicate of a sentence may be

1. Simple. **2. Complex.**

SIMPLE PREDICATE.

390. The **predicate** of a sentence is **simple** when the notion to be conveyed is expressed by a single finite verb; as, "Virtue *flourishes*." "Time *flies*." "I *love*."

COMPLEX PREDICATE.

391. Many verbs do not make complete sense by themselves, but require some other word to be used with them to make the sense complete. Of this kind are the intransitive verbs *be, become, grow, seem, can, do, shall, will*, &c., and such transitive verbs as *make, call, deem, think*.

To say, "The horse is," "The light becomes," "I can," or "I made the man," makes no sense. It is requisite to use some other word or phrase (a substantive, an adjective, or a verb in the infinitive) with the verb; as, "The horse *is black*." "The light *becomes dim*." "I *can write*." "It *made* the man *mad*." "He *was made king*." "He *was elected President*." "He *was named Henry*." Verbs of this kind are called **Verbs of incomplete Predication**, and the words used with them to make the predication complete may be called **the complement of the predicate.***

Verbs which are capable of forming simple predicates are often followed by complements, being verbs of incomplete predication *so far as the matter in hand is concerned*. Thus *live* is not always and necessarily a verb of incomplete predication, but in the sentence "He lived happy ever afterwards," the predicate is *lived happy*, and *happy* forms a (subjective) complement to *lived*, which, therefore, is, *so far*, a verb of incomplete predication. So in "They went along singing," *singing* is the complement of *went*.† In "He made a mistake," *made* is a verb of complete predication; in "He made his father angry," *made* is a verb of incomplete predication, and requires the (objective) complement *angry* to make the sense complete.

392. The **predicate** of a sentence is **complex** when it consists of **a verb of incomplete predication accompanied by its complement.**

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* Since this use of the term *completion* or *complement* of the Predicate was first adopted in this work it has been sanctioned by the authority of Mätzner and Koch (ii. § 245), who both employ it in a similar sense.

† A sentence like "He went out *hunting*" is not exactly like these. Here *hunting* means 'a hunting' or 'on hunting'; it is an adverbial adjunct of *went*, denoting the *purpose* of his going.

1. Subjective Complement.

393. When a verb of incomplete predication is intransitive or passive, the complement of the predicate stands in the predicative relation to the subject; as, "He is prudent." "He became rich." "He is called John." "The wine tastes sour."* "He feels sick." This kind of complement may be termed the *Subjective Complement.*†

The Complement may consist of any Attributive Adjunct (§ 362), as "The earth is *the Lord's*"; "The coat was *of many colours*"; but an adverb, or adverbial phrase, never forms the complement of a predicate. A substantive clause may be used as a complement, just like a simple substantive, as "My advice is *that you do not meddle with the matter.*"

394. A verb is an *attributive* word, and an infinitive mood or infinitive phrase is often used instead of an adjective as a subjective complement, as, "He seems *to have forgotten* me." The infinitive thus used may itself be followed by a complement. Thus, in "He appears to be honest," *to be* is the complement of *appears*, and *honest* the complement of *to be*.

The complement of the predicate in these cases is spoken of the subject, and must therefore agree with the subject in all that they can have in common. Hence the rule that the verbs *be*, *become*, *feel*, *be called*, &c., take the same case after them as before them. The objective complement with an active verb becomes the subjective complement of the passive, as "He cut the matter short." "The matter was cut short." Similarly a verb forming an indirect predicate of a substantive (§ 397) after an active verb, becomes the complement of the predicate in the passive construction, as "He was heard *to say*"; "The bear was made *to dance*." The same is the case with a factitive object (§ 369 A), as in "He was made *king*"; "He was elected *consul*."

In such sentences as 'It is I,' we must regard *it* as the subject, and *I* as the complement of the predicate; '*it* (*i.e.*, 'the person you have in mind,' &c.) is *I*.' In Anglo-Saxon this was reversed. We find "gyf þu hyt eart," *if thou art it* (*Matt.* xiv. 28); "Ic hyt eom," *I it am* (*Matt.* xiv. 27). (So in modern German 'ich bin es.') Afterwards we find the *it* omitted, as, "gif thou art" (*Matt.* xiv. 28); "I my silf am" (*Luke* xxiv. 39). In Chaucer we find 'It am I,' where 'I' is the complement of the predicate, but attracts the verb into its own person.

2. Objective Complement.

395. When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the complement of the predicate stands in the **attributive relation**

* Some persons have the mistaken idea that they are using better English when they say "The rose smells *sweetly*," "His voice sounded *harshly*," &c. In many cases it does not matter which form of expression is used. It comes to much the same thing whether we say 'He arrived *safe*' or 'He arrived *safely*;' but no one in his senses would say "he seems *honestly*" for "he seems *honest*," or "He feels *coldly*" for "he feels *cold*."

† Of course infinitive moods, participles, and gerunds may have complements attached to them just as well as the finite forms of the verb, as 'He strove to become *rich*,' 'feeling *sick*,' &c.

to the object of the verb; as, "He dyed the cloth red." "She called the man a liar." This kind of complement may be termed the **Objective Complement.***

The following are examples of the Objective Complement:—'Hold the reins *tight*'; 'he took the man *prisoner*'; 'he left his nephew *heir* to his estate'; 'attention held them *mute*'; 'let me *alone*'; 'set the prisoner *free*'; 'he painted the house *white*'; 'they appointed Nelson *admiral*.' When the complement is a noun, we in fact get two objects, of which the second is a factitive object (§ 369 A). It is, however, properly regarded as a Complement of the Predicate. Its meaning is so bound up with that of the verb, that it cannot be separated from it to become the subject in the passive construction.† We can say 'The man *was taken prisoner*,' but we cannot make *prisoner* the subject of *was taken*.

3. Infinitive Complement.

398. The third kind of complement is that which follows such verbs as *can*, *will*, *must*, &c., as "I can *write*," "He must *go*." This may be termed the **infinitive complement**, or **complementary infinitive.** The *object* of the sentence is often attached to the dependent infinitive.

In some grammars an infinitive thus used is called a *Prolative Infinitive*, that is, an Infinitive which *carries forward* or *extends* the meaning of the preceding verb. There is no objection to the term. It comes in fact to precisely the same thing. To say that a verb is an *extensible verb*, and that its meaning is *extended* or *carried forward* by the infinitive that follows, is equivalent to saying that it is a *verb of incomplete predication*, and that its meaning is *completed* or *filled up* by the infinitive.

* This sort of Complement requires to be carefully distinguished from the *Indirect Predicate* (§ 397). At first sight they seem much the same, but a little reflection will show that when we have an indirect predicate attached to a substantive the meaning of the preceding verb is not in any way *modified* or *filled up* by what follows it, and what is denoted by the indirect predicate is not in any way the *result* of the action denoted by the verb. In 'He felt the ground shake,' 'He saw the man hanged,' the verbs 'felt' and 'saw' convey *of themselves* their full and usual meaning, and describe completely the action that we intend to predicate; and 'shake' and 'hanged' do not denote anything which is the *result* of the 'feeling' or 'seeing.' But if we say 'He made the man angry, "he struck the man dead,' 'he painted the house white,' the verbs 'made,' 'struck,' 'painted' do not *of themselves* fully describe the action that we intend to predicate, and 'angry,' 'dead,' and 'white,' denote what is the *result* of the 'making,' 'striking,' and 'painting.' In "He found the man dead," *dead* is not the complement of *found*, because the *dead state* of the man is in no way the result of *the finding*; but in "He struck the man dead," *dead* is the complement of *struck*, because the dead state of the man is *the result of the striking*. The close connection between the verb and its complement is seen from the position of the words in '*Hold fast* the profession of your faith'; 'They *make broad* their phylacteries' (In A.S. *make broad* = tóbræded; in Wycliffe = *alargen*). In some cases the complement has formed a distinct compound with the verb, as 'white-wash,' 'rough-hew.' In German this is quite common, as in *gutmachen*, *vol'bringen*, *todtschlagen*, &c. The matter is not settled by saying that 'he made the man angry' simply means that 'what he made' was 'the man in an angry state' This sort of explanation is quite inapplicable to the rest of the examples given above. It is possible only in the case of 'make,' and perhaps one or two more verbs.

† This use of a verb and a complement instead of a single verb results from the *analytic* tendencies of English. In A.S. we find 'wyrsian' = 'to make worse,' 'tóbrædan' = 'to make broad,' 'geclænsian' = 'to make clean.'

OBJECT.

397. The Object of a verb may be—

1. Simple. 2. Compound. 3. Complex.

These distinctions are the same as in the case of the Subject (§ 384, &c.).

There is also a peculiar kind of Complex Object, consisting of a **Substantive** accompanied by an Infinitive Mood or Participle which forms an **Indirect Predicate** to it,* as "I saw *him fall*"; "He made *the bear dance*"; "Let there *be light*"; "Let *us pray*"; "He commanded *the bridge to be lowered*";† "He knew *the man to have been unjustly accused*"; "We saw *the man hanged*";‡ "They found *the child dying*";‡ "He made his power felt";‡ "We found *the man honest.*"‡

These substantive phrases may also be used as the subjects of verbs (see § 387 and note), and may come after prepositions, as "The wind sits fair for *news to go to Ireland*"; "They set him free without *his ransom paid*"; "On *some brandy being administered*, he revived" (compare the Latin *post urbem conditam*).

The question whether a participle or adjective forms an Indirect Predicate, or is merely an attributive adjunct of the Object, may often be settled by the introduction of an Infinitive Mood, as "They found the child [to be] dying," "He found the man [to be] honest," or by substituting a substantive clause, as "He believed *that the man was insane*" for "He believed *the man insane.*"

398. The neuter '*it*' often serves as a temporary or provisional representative of a complex object, showing its grammatical relation to a verb or participle, as "I think *it* foolish *to act so*"; "The burden which they considered *it* impossible to remove," where '*it*' = 'to remove which.' (See § 387.) The object is also sometimes pleonastically repeated, as "All other doubts, by time let *them* be cleared."

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* This answers to the ordinary Accusative and Infinitive in Latin. In A.S. we find "Secgaŏ hine libban" = 'They say *him live.*'

† The beginner must not confound the indirect predicate with the infinitive denoting *purpose* or *result*. If we say "He held the man to be in the right," we have an indirect predicate, because what he *held* (i.e. believed or maintained) was 'that the man was in the right.' But in "He held out his hand *to be caned*," we get an infinitive of purpose. So "He commanded the bridge to be lowered" = 'he commanded that the bridge should be lowered'; it is obvious that 'bridge' cannot be the direct object of 'commanded'; but in "He urged me *to come*," "They entreated us *to remain*," "We compelled the man *to desist*," we have infinitives denoting purpose (and therefore forming adverbial adjuncts of the verb), denoting that *to which* the 'urging,' 'entreating,' or 'compelling' *was directed*. Sometimes the construction is ambiguous, as "He caused the troops to press onwards"; "He ordered the men to advance." This last may mean either "He gave orders to the men to advance," or 'he gave orders *that the men should advance.*'

‡ To see how different this construction is from that of a substantive with an ordinary attributive adjunct, compare "He saw the man hanged" with "he saw a man clothed in scarlet." The latter means 'He saw a man *in the state* described by 'clothed in scarlet.' The former does not mean that 'he saw *the man in a hanged condition*,' but 'he saw *the hanging of the man take place.*' If 'clothed in scarlet' were an indirect predicate, the sentence would mean that 'he saw the man having the scarlet clothes put on him.'

399. The object of a verb may have any combination of attributive adjuncts attached to it. It is then said to be **enlarged** or **expanded.** (See § 388.) If the object be an infinitive mood or a gerund, it may have an object or an adverbial adjunct attached to itself (§ 388).

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

400. Sentences are of three kinds :—

A. **Simple.** B. **Complex.** C. **Compound.**

When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is said to be a **simple** sentence.

When a sentence contains not only a complete subject and its verb, but also other dependent or subordinate clauses which have subjects and verbs of their own, the sentence is said to be **complex.**

When a sentence consists of two or more complete and independent sentences connected by co-ordinative conjunctions, it is said to be **compound.**

Complex Sentences.

401. A Complex Sentence * is one which, besides a principal subject and predicate, contains one or more subordinate clauses, which have subjects and predicates of their own.

Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds :—

1. Substantive Clauses. 2. Adjective Clauses. 3. Adverbial Clauses.

A **Substantive Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to a substantive.

An **Adjective Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adjective.

An **Adverbial Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is equivalent to an adverb.

402. A **complex sentence** is produced whenever the place of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb is supplied by **a substantive clause, an adjective clause,** or **an adverbial clause.**† The principal sentence is a *containing sentence*, and the subordinate clause is a *contained clause.*

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* It will obviate much confusion if the term 'Sentence' be restricted to a combination of words forming *a complete whole*, 'Clause' to a subordinate member of a sentence *containing a finite verb*, and 'Phrase' to any combination of words *which does not contain a finite verb* expressed or understood.

† Learners are sometimes told that a Substantive Clause is the '*expansion*' of a Substantive, an Adjective Clause the '*expansion*' of an Adjective, and so on. This is a misleading view of the matter. One expression is the *expansion* of another only when the elements of the latter are *still preserved* in the former. Thus, "The lark builds" is *expanded* in the sentence, "The lark, which soars so high and sings so sweetly, builds its nest on the dewy ground." But to say that "I saw *that he was confused*" is an expansion of 'I saw *his confusion*,' is a misuse of terms. A shoe is not '*expanded*' when it is pulled off and replaced by a jack-boot.

If we say, "He announced the arrival of Cæsar," we get a simple sentence. If we say, "He announced that Cæsar had arrived," we get a complex sentence, the substantive clause *that Cæsar had arrived* being substituted for *the arrival of Cæsar.*

If we say, "He has lost the book given to him by me," we have a simple sentence. If we say, "He has lost the book which I had given to him," we get a complex sentence, the adjective clause *which I had given to him*, being substituted for *given to him by me.*

If we say, "The boy went out to play on the completion of his task," we get a simple sentence. If we say, "The boy went out to play when he had completed his task," we get a complex sentence, the adverbial clause *when he had completed his task*, being substituted for *on the completion of his task.*

It must never be forgotten that a dependent or subordinate clause is *an integral part* of the principal sentence to which it belongs, just as though it were an ordinary substantive, adjective, or adverb.

Two or more subordinate clauses may be *co-ordinate with each other*, as "We heard that he had lost all his money, and [that he] had gone out of his mind"; "This is the book which I spoke of, and which I promised to lend you."

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

403. A **Substantive Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to a substantive.** It may be either the subject or the object of the verb in the principal clause, or it may be in apposition to some other substantive, or be governed by a preposition.

Substantive clauses usually begin either with the conjunction *that*,* or with an interrogative word. The conjunction *that*, however, is frequently understood; as "I saw *he was tired.*" Sometimes the interrogative '*how*' is so weakened in meaning as to be equivalent to '*that*,' as "'Tis told how the good squire gives never less than gold."

404. In the sentence "I know that he did this," the clause '*that he did this*' is the object of the verb '*know.*'

In "He asked me how old I was," the clause '*how old I was*' is the object of the verb '*asked.*'† Similarly in "He asked me whether I was hungry," the clause *whether I was hungry* is the (second) object of 'asked.' '*If*' is often used with a similar interrogative force, as "He asked me if I was hungry."

In "When I set out is uncertain," the clause '*when I set out*' is the subject of the verb '*is.*'†

* In vulgar English '*as*' is commonly used for '*that*,' sometimes along with '*how*,' as "I believe *as how* your man deals with the devil" (*Smollett*). Similarly we find '*how that*,' as "That thou may'st know *how that* the earth is the Lord's."

† *How* and *when* are here interrogative words. In cases of this sort we get what is called a *dependent* (or *indirect*) *question.* Interrogatives are also used with verbs in the infinitive mood to constitute a *substantive phrase*, as 'I do not know *where to go*' (§ 387).

In "The idea that I shall give my consent is ridiculous," the clause '*that I shall give my consent*' is in apposition to the noun '*idea*.' In "Why have we done this, that we have let Israel go," the clause '*that we have let Israel go*' is in apposition to the pronoun '*this*.'

In "We should have arrived sooner, but that we met with an accident," the clause '*that we met with an accident*' is governed by the preposition '*but*.'* In "Have they any sense of why they sing," the clause '*why they sing*' is governed by the preposition '*of*.'

405. When a substantive clause is the subject of a verb, it is usually represented temporarily by the pleonastic demonstrative '*it*,' as "*It* is not true *that he died yesterday*." This is also the case when the clause is the object of a complex predicate (§ 391), as "He made *it* clear *that the plan was impossible*."†

A substantive clause may also follow a phrase which, *taken as a whole*, is equivalent to a transitive verb. Thus: "He other means doth make, How he may work unto her further smart," where 'make means' = *endeavour*, or *try*. So '*I am afraid* that he will not succeed' is equivalent to '*I fear* that he will not succeed.'‡ So in "Bid her be judge whether Bassanio had not once a friend," 'be judge' = 'judge.'

406. It is to verbs that substantives and substantive clauses most commonly stand in the objective relation. This has nothing to do with the *predicative* force of the verb, but depends upon the fact that the verb denotes an action or feeling directed towards an object. Participles and gerunds take objects after them, and even some nouns which denote a transitive action or feeling may have a substantive clause as an object.§ Thus, 'There is no *proof* that he did this'; 'We have no *hope* that he will recover.'

407. A *quotation* is not a *substantive* or *dependent clause*. Its form is not affected by its relation to the principal verb, as that of a dependent clause is. Compare "He said '*I am tired*'" with "He said *that he was tired*."

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

408. An Adjective Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adjective**. It

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* In such cases the preposition and the substantive clause governed by it constitute together an adverbial adjunct of the predicate, just like a preposition and noun (§ 372, 2). *What* is sometimes improperly substituted for *that*, as 'I had no idea but *what* the story was true'; and *that* is sometimes omitted, as 'It never rains but it pours' (*i.e.*, 'leaving out the times when it pours, it never rains'); 'But I be deceived, our fine musician groweth amorous' (Shaksp. *Tam.* iii. 1). In these cases the *but* acquires the function of a conjunction (§ 291).

† This anticipatory '*it*' sometimes brings into prominence some *adjunct* of the predicate. Thus, "It was for you that I bought the book," i.e. 'my buying the book was for you.' "It was yesterday that this event happened" = 'the happening of this event was (*i.e.*, took place) yesterday.'

‡ It is also possible to treat the substantive clause in such cases as being analogous to the adverbial accusative, or accusative of closer definition in Latin. Thus, "I am sorry that you are not well" is 'I am sorry *as regards the fact* that you are not well.'

This is sometimes the only mode of dealing with such a clause, as in "He was vexed *that you did not come*"; "I am sure *that he did it*."

§ Mr. Peile (*Primer*, p. 127) quotes the remarkable construction in Plautus, "Quid tibi *hanc tactio* est?" 'What *right-of-touching this woman* have you?' Sometimes a noun, owing to its peculiar meaning, has an *adverbial* clause attached to it, as "Anxiety *lest he should lose his money* harassed him."

stands in the attributive relation to a substantive, and is attached to the word which it qualifies by means of a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceeded by a preposition.*

In the sentence "Look at the exercise which I have written," the clause '*which I have written*' qualifies the noun '*exercise*,' and is much the same in force as the participial phrase 'written by me.'

In "That is the house where I dwell," the clause '*where I dwell*' qualifies the noun '*house*.' *Where* is equivalent to *in which*.

Adjective clauses are usually co-ordinate with a demonstrative adjective *this*, *that*, &c. Thus in the sentence, "I never received those books which you sent," the adjective '*those*' and the adjective clause '*which you sent*' are both in the attributive relation to '*books*.'

409. The relative is sometimes omitted, as "Where is the book *I gave you?*" for *which I gave you*; "I have a mind *presages me such thrift*," &c., for *which presages*, &c. (§ 164).

Sometimes adjective clauses are used substantively, *i.e.*, with no antecedent expressed, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash." This omission of the antecedent is usual when the relative *what* is used, as "I heard what he said," "There is no truth in what he said."

410 Care must be used to distinguish those clauses in which an indirect question is involved in the use of *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, &c., from clauses in which these words are mere *relatives*. In such sentences as, "Tell me what I ought to do," "I asked him who said so," "I know why he did it," "He asked me when I had arrived," the dependent clauses are indirect questions, and are substantive clauses, having no antecedent expressed or understood to which they relate. They are based upon the direct questions, "What ought I to do?"; "Who said so?" &c. In "That is what I said," "This is where I live," the dependent clauses are adjective clauses. Sometimes there is no ambiguity. In "He asked me *where I lived*" we clearly have an indirect question. In "I believe *what you say*" we have an adjective clause (with suppressed antecedent), 'that which you say.' Sometimes a sentence is ambiguous. Thus, "I know what you told him" may mean either "The fact which you told him is one that I know," or "I know the answer to the question 'What did you tell him." The distinction is analogous to that between clauses beginning with *quis* or *quid* in Latin, and clauses beginning with *qui* or *quod*. In these the distinction is marked also by the mood of the verb. "Nescio quid narraveris" means 'I do not know what story it was that you told.' "Non credo quod narravisti" means 'I do not believe the story which you told.'

411. Clauses beginning with *as* must be regarded as adjective clauses, when they follow *such* and *same*. Thus, in "I do not admire such books as he writes," the clause *as he writes* is an adjective clause qualifying *books*, and co-ordinate with *such*, *as* being a relative pronoun (§ 165).

* Sometimes a relative *clause* (with a finite verb) is replaced by a relative *phrase* with an infinitive mood, as "Where there is then no good *for which to strive*"; He had not *wherewithal to buy a loaf*." Sometimes even the relative is omitted, as "I have not a pen to write with."

412. An adjective clause (like an ordinary adjective) has usually a definitive or restrictive force. But it often happens that clauses introduced by relatives are, as regards their *force and meaning*, co-ordinate with the principal clause. Such a clause is *continuative* rather than *definitive*. Thus, in "I wrote to your brother, who replied that you had not arrived," the sense of the sentence would be the same if *and he* were substituted for *who*. So in "He heard that the bank had failed, which was a sad blow to him," *which* should be treated as equivalent to *and this*.

The continuative relative may even belong in reality to an adverbial clause contained *within the entire clause* which it introduces. Thus:—"Which when Beelzebub perceived . . . . he rose" (*Par. L.* ii. 299), equivalent to "And when Beelzebub perceived this, —— he rose." "Which though I be not wise enough to frame, Yet as I well it meane, vouchsafe it without blame" (*Spenser*, vi. 4, 34), *i.e.*, 'And though I be not wise enough to frame this,' &c. Modern writers rather eschew these constructions.

413. The anticipative or provisional subject *it* often has an adjective clause as an adjunct. Thus, "It was John who did that" = "It (the person) who did that was John." In such cases, when the relative is the subject of the following verb, that verb usually agrees in number and person with the predicative noun or pronoun instead of the subject *it;* as, "It is my parents who forbid that;" "It is I who say so."

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

414. An **Adverbial Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adverb.** It stands in the adverbial relation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

Thus, in the sentence, "He was writing a letter when I arrived," the clause "*when I arrived*," indicates the time at which the action expressed by the verb *was writing* took place. The clause "*when I arrived*" is therefore in the adverbial relation to the verb *was writing*. The sense and construction may be represented by a single adverb: "He was writing a letter; I arrived *then*." So, "He still lay *where he had fallen;*" *i.e.*, "He had fallen [somewhere]: he still lay *there*." "I give you this *because I love you;*" *i.e.*, "I love you; *therefore* I give you this."

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

415. Adverbial Clauses may be arranged in the following classes:—

1.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Time.

416. Clauses of this kind begin either with the connective adverbs which denote time, or with the conjunctions *before, after, while, since, ere,*

* Adverbs sometimes do duty as nouns, as "I have heard that before *now* (= the present time)"; "*For ever* is a long day." Adverbial clauses are sometimes used thus, as "When ye come together into one place, this (i.e. *your coming together*) is not to eat the Lord's supper."

until, &c. As, "Every one listens *when he speaks.*" "He punished the boy *whenever he did wrong.*" "He never spoke *after he fell.*" When relative *adverbs* introduce adverbial clauses, they not only connect the adverbial clause with the principal clause, but themselves qualify the verb of the clause which they introduce.

2.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Place.

417. Clauses of this kind are introduced by the relative or connective adverbs *where, whither, whence*, &c. As, "He is still standing *where I left him.*" "*Whither I go* ye cannot come."

3.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner.

418. Adverbial clauses relating to manner are commonly introduced by the relative or connective adverb *as*. *E.g.*, "He did *as he was told.*" "It turned out *as I expected.*" Clauses beginning with *as* are generally elliptical. At full length, "He did as he was told *to do.*"

4.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Degree.

419. Clauses of this kind are introduced by the conjunction *than*, or the connective adverbs *the* (§ 270) and *as*.

Adverbial clauses denoting *degree* are always attached to adjectives or adverbs. They are almost always elliptical.

420. *E.g.*, "He is not so (*or* as) tall as I thought" (*i.e.*, as I thought *he was tall*). Here the clause "as I thought [he was tall]" qualifies (or is in the adverbial relation to) the adjective *tall*, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *so*; and the relative adverb *as* at the beginning of the adverbial clause qualifies *tall* understood.

"He is taller than his brother†;" "He is taller than his brother [is tall]." "I love study more than ever [I loved it much]." Respecting *than*‡ see § 291.

"The more I learn, the more I wish to learn." Here the adverbial sentence "*the more I learn*" qualifies the comparative *more* in the main clause, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *the* which precedes it; the word *more* in the adverbial clause being itself qualified by the relative adverb *the*. The first *the* is relative or subordinative, the second *the* is demonstrative (§§ 126, 270).

5.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause.

421. These usually begin with the conjunctions *because* and *for*.

E.g., "I love him because he is good." Here "*because he is good*" is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *love*.

"He could not have seen me, for I was not there." Here "*for I was not there*" is an adverbial clause qualifying the verb *could*.

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* Adverbial clauses are often co-ordinate with some preceding demonstrative adverb, the vague signification of which they determine, as when *then* is accompanied by a clause beginning with *when*, *there* by a clause beginning with *where*, &c. (Compare § 408.)

† That we must understand the adjective *tall* as well as the verb *is*, will easily be seen if it be considered that every clause or subordinate sentence must have a predicate as well as a subject. If we ask what is predicated of *his brother*, the answer obviously is, *being tall*.

‡ The Latin *quam* means 'in what degree,' 'by how much.' *Ditior est quam ego* means 'in what degree I [am rich] he is richer.' *Quam* is therefore a *connective adverb* in Latin, though in English *than* has become a mere conjunction. The *meaning* of the two words is quite distinct. *Than* originally meant *when*.

Clauses denoting a cause or reason often begin with '*that*,' as "He does hear me, and *that he does* I weep" (*Shaksp.*). Compare the use of *quod* in Latin.

6.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Purpose and Consequence.

422. *E.g.*, "He ran so fast *that he was out of breath.*" Here the adverbial clause "*that he was out of breath*" stands in the adverbial relation to *fast*, and is co-ordinate with *so*, the indefinite meaning of which it amplifies and defines. In these sentences the older writers often have *as* for *that*, as "I will not open my lips so wide *as* a bristle may enter" (*Shaksp.*). In fact *as* is the more correct word.

423. Adverbial clauses relating to *purpose* come also under this head. *E.g.*, "He labours *that he may become rich.*" Here the adverbial clause qualifies the verb *labours*. "I will not make a noise, *lest I should disturb you.*" Here the adverbial clause qualifies *will make*. The Subjunctive Mood is used in these clauses. It is usually in the compound form, but in the older writers we find the simple subjunctive, as, "Lest sin *surprise* thee;" "That I *be* not further tedious unto thee."

7.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition.*

424. Clauses of this kind begin with the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *except*, *though*,† *although*, and the compounds *however*, *whoever*, *whatever*, &c.

425. In adverbial clauses of *condition*, the principal sentence is called the *consequent clause* (*i.e.*, the clause which expresses the *consequence*); the subordinate sentence is called the *hypothetical clause*.

426. Suppositions may be of two kinds.

(**A.**) Suppositions of the first kind relate to some *actual* event or state of things, which was, is, or will be *real*, independently of our thought respecting it. In such suppositions the indicative mood is employed.

427. *Examples.*—"If the prisoner committed the crime, he deserves death. If he did not commit it, all the witnesses swore falsely." "If he is at home, I shall see him." "If your letter is finished, bring it to me."

428. In like manner *concessive clauses* beginning with *though* or *although*, which relate to what *actually is or was the case*, have the indicative mood; as, "Though he was there, I did not see him;" "Bad as the accommodation is, we must put up with it."

429. In a hypothesis relating to some definite event still future, the future tense of the indicative mood was formerly sometimes used in the hypothetical clause. *E.g.*, "If we *shall say* 'from heaven,' he will say, 'Why then did ye not believe him?'" (*Mark* i. 31). "If they *shall enter* into my rest" (*Heb.* v. 5). This construction is now obsolete, and in such cases we now use the present tense.

430. (**B.**) Suppositions of the second kind treat an event or a state of things

* For a fuller discussion of the use of the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods in clauses of this kind, the reader is referred to the Appendix to the author's 'Shorter English Grammar,' or his 'Remarks on the Subjunctive and the so-called Potential Mood' (published separately).

† Hypothetical clauses sometimes begin with 'though' ("He looks as though he knew me"), and concessive clauses sometimes begin with 'if' ("He was generally respected, if little loved").

as a mere conception of the mind. In suppositions of this class, the subjunctive mood is employed.

431. A supposition which is contrary to some fact, present or past, is necessarily a mere conception of the mind, and therefore the subjunctive mood is used, the past indefinite tense* of the subjunctive being used in the hypothetical clause with reference to present time, and the past perfect with reference to past time. In the consequent clause the secondary past indefinite subjunctive (or *conditional*) is used after a supposition referring to present time, and the secondary form of the past perfect subjunctive (or *conditional perfect*) after a supposition relating to past time.

Examples.—"If he were present (which he *is* not), I would speak to him." "If our horse had not fallen down (which he did), we should not have missed the train."

432. In old-fashioned English and in poetry we also find the past perfect subjunctive used in the consequent clause, instead of the secondary form (or conditional perfect); as, "I *had fainted* unless I had believed to see the goodness of the Lord."

433. Clauses expressing a *wish* contrary to the fact have also the subjunctive mood. Thus, "I wish that he *were* here (which he is not)."

434. When we make a supposition with regard to the future, and state its consequence, as a mere conception of the mind, without reference to determination by the actual issue of still future events, the subjunctive mood must be used in both clauses.

Examples.—"If he were rewarded he would be encouraged to persevere." "If he went (*or* should go, *or* were to go) away without speaking to me, I should be grieved." "If he lost (*or* should lose, *or* were to lose) his money, he would never be happy again." "He could not (*or* would not be able to) do it if he tried (*or* were to try)." "I would not believe it unless I saw (*or* should see) it." "If he were to fail, it would be a great disgrace." The use of the indicative in such suppositions (as "If he *was* to fail," &c.) is a vulgarism.

435. When we make a supposition with regard to the future, there is of course as yet no *actual fact* to which our supposition can relate. Such a supposition therefore comes naturally to be regarded as dealing with what is matter of conception only, and consequently as being appropriately expressed by the subjunctive mood. Moreover, since the use of the future tense in a hypothesis relating to the future is now obsolete, the use of the subjunctive enables us to distinguish between a supposition relating to possible future fact, and one relating to actual present fact. Compare "I will come to-morrow if the weather *be* fine," and "I will speak to him if he *is* at home now." The use of the subjunctive is still more desirable if the supposition expresses a *general case*, as such a supposition necessarily refers to

* It seems anomalous to have a *past* tense in any mood referring to *present* time, but the idiom is found in French, German, Latin, and Greek. In French and Greek we even have a past tense of the indicative mood used in sentences of this kind. It seems to have been felt that the past tense used with reference to present time marked better the want of congruity between the supposition and the fact. Thus to express in Greek "If he *were* wise he *would listen* to your advice" we should have to say what is equivalent to "If he *was* wise, he *was listening* (as a consequence) to your advice."

what is not *definite matter of fact*. Thus, "If a line *be* bisected," &c. "If thy right eye *offend* thee, pluck it out." A *conce sive* clause relating to the future should always have the subjunctive (as "Though hand *join* in hand, the wicked shall not be unpunished"; "We will start to-morrow, though it *rain* cats and dogs"). 'Though' with the indicative implies "The case *is* (or *was*) so and so, nevertheless, &c."

436. It is still quite legitimate to use the Subjunctive Mood in hypotheses or concessions dealing with actual present or past fact, when a *general case* is put, because the *vagueness* of the case put makes it a matter of *conception* rather than of *definite fact*. Thus, "But if he *be* a robber, if he *have* eaten upon the mountains, &c., shall he live"? (*Ezek.* xviii); "Oft, though Wisdom *wake*, Suspicion sleeps at Wisdom's gate." Modern usage tends to ignore this distinction.

437. The older writers also frequently extended the use of the subjunctive to hypotheses relating to actual definite fact. Thus, "If thou *have* power to raise him, bring him hither" (*Shaksp.*); "If it *be* thou, bid me come to thee" (*Matt.* xiv. 28); "If it *were* so, it was a grievous fault" (Sh. *J. C.*). This is no longer allowable.

438. An interrogative or imperative sentence is sometimes used in such a way as to be equivalent to a hypothetical clause. *E.g.*, "Is any afflicted (*i.e.*, if any one is afflicted), let him pray." "Take any form but that, and my firm nerves shall never tremble." In this way the double interrogatives *whether—or* came to be equivalent to *either if—or if*. (See § 290, p. 123.)

439. The use of the indefinite pronouns and adverbs compounded with *ever* (*whoever*, *however*, &c.) in concessive clauses may have sprung out of the interrogative use of them. Thus, "Whoever said so, it is false" is much the same as "Who ever said so? It is false."

440. Conditional clauses (in the older writers) often begin with *so*.* *E.g.*, "I am content *so* (*i.e.*, on this condition† namely, that) thou wilt have it so" (*Rom. and J.* iii. 5). Just as the demonstrative *that* became the relative or connective *that*, the *so* in conditional clauses became *as*. *E.g.*, "*As I were a shepherdess*, I should be piped and sung to; *as a dairy-wench*, I would dance at maypoles" (Ben. Jons. *Cynth. Rev.* iv. 1). This *elliptical* use of *as* (in the second clause) is still quite common. In Chaucer *as* is often used for *as if*, as "Thanne wolde he speke and crye *as* he were wood," *i.e.*, 'as if he were mad' (*Prol.* 636). We still have this use of *as* in the phrase '*as it were*.'

441. The force of an adverbial clause is often expressed by a participle. Thus, "More destroyed than thus (i.e., *if* we were more destroyed than thus), we should be quite abolished and expire." "Knowing his duplicity (= *because* I knew, &c.), I was on my guard."‡ (Compare Horace's "Dabitur licentia sumpta pudenter.")

442. The conjunction *if* is often omitted, as "Had I known this (= if I had known this), I would not have come."

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* *Si*, in Latin, is only *sic* without the demonstrative particle *ce* or *c*.

† In Piers Plowman (6721) we find "By so ye hadde my silver"; i.e. 'provided that (*or* if) ye had my silver.' '*With that*' was similarly used by the old writers; 'with that it be so' = 'provided it be so.'

‡ There is not the slightest reason for maintaining that in such cases we have the *gerund*. The active participle is as legitimate as the passive, about which there is no ambiguity.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

443. A compound sentence is one which consists of two or more co-ordinate complete sentences, joined together **by co-ordinative conjunctions,** as "He is happy, but I am not"; "They toil not, neither do they spin."

Co-ordinate clauses are grammatically independent of each other, whereas every subordinate clause is a *component part* of some other clause or sentence.

444. We get a compound sentence whenever two or more sentences *which form complete wholes in themselves* are joined together by co-ordinative conjunctions. But one or more of these complete sentences which are members of a compound sentence may themselves be complex sentences, as (*a*) "I will tell your brother when I see him, but (*b*) I do not think that he will arrive this week."

N.B.—The conjunction itself does not enter into the construction of the clause which it introduces.

COLLATERAL SENTENCES.

445. We frequently find co-ordinate sentences, which have a connection with each other as regards their sense and use, but have no *grammatical* link of connection between them. For example: "I came. I saw. I conquered." "Fear God. Honour the king." "I was robbed of all my money; for that reason I was unable to proceed." "I believed, therefore have I spoken." Such sentences as those placed side by side in the above examples may be called *collateral* or *asyndetic* sentences.

446. We frequently have a series of sentences which are partly collateral and partly compound.

Example:—

"He stay'd not for brake, and he stopp'd not for stone;
He swam the Esk river, where ford there was none."

447. A proper consideration of the nature of collateral sentences will enable us materially to thin the usual lists of conjunctions. A word is not a conjunction because it *refers* us to something that precedes. Simple demonstratives do this. Such words as *therefore, consequently, likewise, also* (*i.e., all so = just in that manner*), *nevertheless, notwithstanding*, are not conjunctions, but demonstrative adverbs. When we say "We went the first day to Paris; *thence* we proceeded to Lyons," we get *two* collateral sentences. When we say "We went the first day to Paris, *whence* we proceeded to Lyons," we get *one* sentence, *whence* having a grammatically connective force. (See § 292.)

448. For analysis, a series of collateral or asyndetic sentences may be treated as though they formed a compound whole.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

449. When co-ordinate sentences contain either the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, the same complement, or the same adverbial adjunct to the predicate, it often happens that the portion which they have in common is expressed only once. In this case the sentence is said to be **contracted.**

Examples:—"Neither I nor you have seen that," *i.e.*, "Neither I [have seen that] nor you have seen that." "He loved not wisely, but too well"; *i.e.*, "He loved not wisely, but [he loved] too well." Here the predicate is expressed only once.*

"Religion purifies and ennobles the soul"; *i.e.*, "Religion purifies [the soul] and [religion] ennobles the soul." Here the subject and the object are expressed only once.

"He is either drunk or mad"; *i.e.*, "Either he is drunk or [he is] mad." Here the subject and the verb of incomplete predication *is* are expressed only once.

"He advances slowly but surely"; *i.e.*, "He advances slowly, but [he advances] surely." Here the common subject and predicate are expressed only once.

"He reads and writes well"; *i.e.*, "He reads [well] and [he] writes well." Here the common subject and the common adverbial adjunct are expressed only once.

450. Contracted sentences ought always to be so constructed, that when arranged without conjunctions, so that what is common to both or all is placed before or after what is not common, the common and separate portions, when read off continuously, make complete sense. Thus, "Religion purifies and ennobles the soul," may be written—

$$\text{Religion} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{purifies} \\ \text{ennobles} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{the soul};$$

and complete sentences are obtained when the parts that are common, and written once, are read with each of the separate portions in succession. So, "He gave me not only some good advice, but also a sovereign," may be arranged thus—

$$\text{He gave me} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{not only some good advice} \\ \text{also a sovereign.} \end{matrix} \right.$$

"He possesses greater talents, but is less esteemed than his brother."

$$\text{He} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{possesses greater talents} \\ \text{is less esteemed} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{than his brother.}$$

If we take such a sentence as, "Man never is but always to be blest," and subject it to this test, we see in a moment that it is faulty—

$$\text{Man} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{never is} \\ \text{always to be} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{blest,}$$

cannot be read off both ways.†

451. It has been already remarked (§ 387, note) that a sentence is not

* The predicate which is expressed must, of course, agree with the nearer of the two subjects. The predicate which is not expressed may have to be modified when supplied to suit its own subject. Thus, "Neither you nor I am right"; "Neither you nor your brother is in fault."

† The following sentences are faulty for a similar reason:—"Such as none heard before or will again" (*Byron*); "Many have and others must sit there" (*Shaksp.*).

necessarily a contracted sentence because we find co-ordinative conjunctions used in it. "John and Charles are brothers," is as much one sentence as "These two boys are brothers." One predication may be made of two things taken together. "The child has a red and white ball," does not mean "The child has a red ball, and the child has a white ball." The attributes *coexist* in the same object. So when the same act is directed *simultaneously* to two or more objects, the verb may have two or more objects after it; but the sentence need not, on that account, be split up into two or more sentences. Thus, "He mixed yellow and red together"; "He confounds right and wrong." A similar principle applies to the case of adverbial adjuncts. In "The path led onward and upward" it is not necessary to find more than one predication. But "He came now and then," "I saw one here and there," should be treated as contracted sentences. But every verb makes a distinct predication, consequently every verb requires a separate sentence for itself. The conjunction *or* always involves a complete sentence for each of the words or phrases that it introduces, because the word implies some *alternative*, so that the idea of simultaneousness is excluded.

452. It follows, from the principle on which co-ordinate and contracted sentences are constructed, that the co-ordinative conjunctions must always join words and clauses which *stand in the same relation* to the other parts of the sentence. It would make nonsense if we attempted to join an adjective to a noun (unless the latter be used *attributively* or *predicatively*), or a subject to an adverb, or a verb in the indicative mood to a verb in the imperative mood,* &c.

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

453. Elliptical sentences differ from contracted sentences in the following respect:—In contracted sentences a certain portion which is common to the sentences is expressed only once in one of them, and has to be repeated in the others. In elliptical sentences, the part to be supplied in one clause, although suggested by what is expressed in the other, is not necessarily exactly the same in form. Moreover, contracted sentences or clauses are always co-ordinate; an elliptical clause is usually a subordinate clause, the portion to be supplied being suggested by the principal clause; as, "He is taller than I," *i.e.*, "than I am tall"; "This does not cost so much as that," *i.e.*, "as that costs much."†

SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

454. [Most of these rules, having been already stated in preceding parts of this work, are here only referred to, that the pupil may have the opportunity of studying them afresh in connection with each other.]

* Young letter-writers constantly forget this rule at the close of their epistles, where such combinations as, "I have no more to say, and believe me yours truly," are very frequent.

† It is not always possible to fill up an elliptical sentence. Some occur of which the original complete form has been forgotten. See the examples of Analysis for a fuller discussion of elliptical sentences.

CONCORD.

455. In inflected languages (like Latin, German, or English in its earliest stage) **concord** means the use of those grammatical forms which are congruous with each other.

A verb must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same number and person as its subject.

An adjective must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same gender, number, and case as the noun or pronoun to which it belongs.

A relative pronoun must have that grammatical form which shows that it is of the same gender and number as its antecedent.

456. In modern English, grammatical inflexions have been to a great extent dispensed with. We have therefore very little of the above kinds of concord. But as regards *concords expressed by form* we still have the rule that a verb must agree with its subject in number and person, and that the demonstrative pronoun of the Third Person must agree in gender and number with the noun for which it stands, and that the demonstratives '*this*' and '*that*' assume the plural forms 'these' and 'those' when they qualify a plural noun. If the term *agreement* is used for anything beyond this, it can only denote *congruity of use*, that is, sameness in the grammatical relations which *might* be represented by form, but are not. To say, for example, that in "The woman who was hurt has recovered," 'who' *agrees* in gender with 'woman,' means no more than that the pronoun, as used in that sentence, represents a female person.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

457. For the definition of the **Nominative Case** see § 68.

A **noun** in the **nominative case** may be used—

1. As the subject of a sentence (§ 348) or of a subordinate clause of a sentence (§ 401).
2. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the nominative case (§ 362, 2).
3. As the complement of an Intransitive or Passive Verb of Incomplete Predication (§ 391).
4. As a Nominative Absolute (§ 372, 5).
5. As a Nominative of Address (§ 70).

458. For the functions of the **Possessive Case** see §§ 71—73.

A **noun** in the **possessive case** is usually attached to some other noun to which it forms an Attributive Adjunct * (§ 362, 3),

* A noun in the possessive case, however, does not cease to be a *noun*. It does not become an adjective because its *form* makes it partake of the functions of an adjective. In 'John's father' 'John's' is a *noun* in the possessive case, as in 'Caesaris uxor,' 'Caesaris' is a *noun* in the genitive case. Similarly a noun in the objective case, with or without a preposition, is often an *Adverbial Adjunct* (like a noun in the dative or ablative in Latin). But it is going too far to say that the noun in the objective, dative, or ablative *is* an adverb.

and on which it is sometimes said to depend. This noun is sometimes omitted when it can readily be supplied in thought, as "I bought this at Smith's [shop]," "We went to St. Paul's [church]."

The Possessive Case may also be the complement of a Verb of Incomplete Predication (§ 393), as 'The earth is the Lord's.'

When something belongs to two or more persons in common, the inflexion of the possessive case is placed only after the last of the nouns that denote the possessors, when they are very closely connected, as 'Smith, Brown, and Robinson's shop'; 'Liddell and Scott's lexicon'; 'In William and Mary's reign.'

A complex name has the possessive inflexion at the end (§ 77).

459. For the functions of the **Objective Case** see §§ 79, 80. A **noun** in the **objective case** may be used—

1. As the direct object of a transitive verb, participle, or gerund (§ 368). Some verbs take two objective cases after them (§ 370), one of which is sometimes a factitive object (§ 369, A).
2. As the indirect object of a transitive verb, whether active or passive (§ 369, B), or as the secondary object after a passive verb, when the active verb governs two objectives (§ 370).
3. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the objective case (§ 362, 2).
4. As the complement of a transitive verb of incomplete predication (§ 395).
5. With an infinitive mood or participle attached to it as an indirect predicate, forming a substantive phrase, used as the subject or object of a verb, or after a preposition (§ 397).
6. As an Adverbial Adjunct (§ 371).
7. As a Cognate Objective (§ 372, 3).
8. After Prepositions (§ 277).

Some anomalous uses of the objective case in Pronouns are treated of in § 477.

The Objective Case is used in exclamations, as 'Ah me!' 'Oh me unhappy!' 'Me to be thus jeered at!'

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

460. The attributive and the predicative use of Adjectives are explained in § 87. As regards adjectives used substantively and adjectives which have become substantives, see § 98.

461. Adjectives (including participles) sometimes relate to the substantive which is implied in a possessive pronoun, as "The Lord lighteneth *both their* eyes" (*i.e.*, the eyes of *both of them*); "For *all our* sakes," &c. (§ 135, *note*). Similarly, "Thus *repulsed, our* final hope is flat despair" (*Milton*).

462. The Indefinite Article *an* or *a* should be repeated before each of a series of nouns standing for different things, as "I saw a horse, a

cow, and a pig in the stable," unless the things are so closely connected with each other as to form a sort of compound group; as "He built a coachhouse and stable;" "Give me a cup and saucer." "A black and white ball" can only mean 'a ball that is partly black and partly white.' If we mean to speak of *two* balls of different colours, we must say 'a black and a white ball.'

The singular demonstrative adjectives 'each' and 'every' may be placed once before two or more nouns, as "Every man, woman, and child was slaughtered"; "Each boy and girl received a present."

463. The definitive adjectives 'the,' 'these,' 'those,' 'my,' 'our,' &c., *need* not be repeated before each of several nouns, though of course they *may* be so repeated. We commonly say "The King and Queen"; "The tables and chairs were in confusion"; "He gathered all the apples and pears"; "My uncle, aunt, and cousin came yesterday." If a plural noun is in sense *distributed* among several adjectives, so as to stand for a collection of single things, *each* of which is described by *one* of the adjectives, it is proper to use the definitive adjective once, as "The third and fourth regiments," "The English, French and German languages." A plural may also be distributed into two or more *plurals*, provided no ambiguity results, as "He placed all the gold and silver coins in one bag, and all the bronze and copper ones in another"; but in such cases it is always safer to repeat the article. The demonstratives must be repeated if a plural noun is not thus distributed, and is accompanied by two or more adjectives marking qualities which do not belong in common to all the things named by the noun. Thus, "The clever and industrious boys," means 'the boys who are both clever and industrious,' but we cannot speak of "the idle and industrious boys," because the two attributes do not co-exist in the same boys; we must say 'the idle and the industrious boys.'

This principle, however, is often disregarded, as in, "The rich and poor meet together" (*Prov.* xxii. 2); while the article is sometimes repeated when only *one* thing is referred to, provided it is clear that only one thing is meant; as "He returned a sadder and a wiser man"; "You will find this road the shortest and the pleasantest."

464. The ordinary effect of the repetition of the article (or other definitive word) is to make the noun stand for several distinct groups. "The wise, the valiant, and the wealthy citizens" should mean three distinct classes of citizens. "The wise, valiant, and wealthy citizens" would denote *one* class possessing all three qualities.

The article should not be used before a noun used attributively or predicatively with distinct reference to its *signification*. Thus, "He became Chancellor of the Exchequer"; "John Smith, captain of the Petrel, next gave evidence."

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

465. Pronouns must agree in Gender, Number, and Person with the nouns for which they stand. Their case is determined

by the construction of the clause in which they occur. Thus: 'I do not like John (*obj.*); 'he (*nom.*) is an idle boy'; 'I know the man (*obj.*) whose (*poss.*) portrait hangs there,' &c. Even if the pronouns happen to *coincide* in case with the nouns to which they relate, this is not *grammatical agreement*, it is a mere accident.

466. The nominative and objective cases are constructed as in nouns. The possessive cases have become adjectives (§ 142).

467. The antecedent of a Relative Pronoun is sometimes disguised in the form of a Possessive (adjective) Pronoun, as "Whose is the crime, the scandal too be theirs." (See § 461.)

468. The relative pronoun is frequently omitted (§ 164) when, if expressed, it would be in the objective case; but it is rarely omitted when, if expressed, it would be in the nominative case. In the older writers, however, we find such expressions, as "I have a mind presages me such thrift;" "They are envious term thee parasite." The continuative relative (§ 412) can never be omitted.

469. When a relative refers to a noun which is in the predicative relation to a personal pronoun, the relative is sometimes made to agree in person with that pronoun, rather than with its actual antecedent. Thus: "I am . . . . a plain blunt man, that *love my* friend" (Sh. *J. C.* iii. 2); "Thou art the God that *doest* wonders" (*Ps.* lxxvii. 14). This is an instance of grammatical *attraction*. The strict construction is seen in such sentences as "Art thou he who first *broke* peace in Heaven?" (*Milton*). Milton also uses the other construction, as "If thou beest he who . . . . *didst* outshine myriads, &c." (*P. L.* I. 84).

470. Also when a relative clause explains the anticipatory subject 'it,' to which a personal pronoun is joined predicatively, the relative commonly agrees with the personal pronoun and not with its antecedent *it*. Thus we say "It is I who *am* in fault," though the sentence really means "*It* (the person) who is in fault, is I." This also is a case of *attraction*. Contrariwise the predicative pronoun is sometimes *attracted* into the case of the relative. It is usual to say "It is *I* who did it," but "It is *me* whom he *fears*."*

471. It is not usual now to employ a relative pronoun in a complex adjective clause which contains an adverbial clause, so that the relative shall belong to the adverbial clause (§ 412). In the older writers such sentences were not uncommon, as "A treasure which if country curates buy, They Junius and Tremellius may defy"; "Which when Beelzebub perceived . . . he rose" (*P. L.* ii. 299); "He mentions but few books . . . from which if ever he departs, he is in danger of losing himself" (*Johnson*). Respecting the pleonastic demonstrative used in such cases when the relative is in the nominative case, see § 383.

* In point of fact it is not necessary to regard 'me' as the complement of the predicate. The sentence may be treated as one of those in which the pronoun *it* is employed to bring into prominence some emphatic element of a sentence, as in "It was *to you* that I addressed myself"; "It was *in Venice* that he died."

472. Respecting the pleonastic use of a demonstrative pronoun as a substitute for the inflexion of the relative see § 152, *note*. Compare " . . . good works, *which* God hath before ordained that we should walk *in them* (= *in which*)."

473. But a relative may be used in a complex adjective clause, so as to belong to a subordinate substantive clause, as " That is a sort of wine which I know that he likes," where 'which' belongs in construction to the clause which begins with 'that.'

474. The pronoun *he, she, it,* ought to agree in gender and number with the noun to which it refers. But it often happens that it has to be used with reference to the individuals of a class that may consist of both sexes, distributed by means of the singular indefinite pronouns 'each' and 'every,' or to either of two singular nouns differing in gender, and connected by the alternative pronouns 'either—or,' 'neither—nor.' The difficulty that thus arises is sometimes evaded by using the plural, as " Let each esteem other better than themselves ;" " If an ox gore a man or a woman so that *they* die " (*Exod.* xxi. 28) ; " Not on outward charms alone should man or woman build *their* pretensions to please "* (*Opie*). Some insist that in such cases alternative pronouns should be used, 'so that *he or she* die,' '*his or her* pretensions,' &c. But on the whole, the plural seems preferable, although, of course, it involves a breach of a rule. Such a sentence as " Each man, woman, and child received his, her, and its share," is intolerably awkward.

475. *They* and *them* are not now used as antecedents to a relative pronoun. They were commonly so used by the older writers, but as the *plural* antecedent to a relative *those* is now employed. The singular pronouns *he, him, she, her* may be used as antecedents, but not the neuter *it.*

476. When pronouns, or pronouns and nouns, of different persons are coupled together, their relative position varies according to the number. In the singular the **Second** Person comes **before** the **First** or **Third** (*You and I ; You and he ;* or, *You and John*), but the **Third** comes **before** the **First** (*He and I*). In the plural **we** has the **first** place, **you** the **second,** and **they** the **third.** If a pronoun has to represent words of different persons, the Second Person takes precedence of the Third, and the First of either the Second or the Third, as " You and he must do *your* work " ; " John and I lost *our* way."

The neuter pronoun '*it*' is largely employed as the temporary or anticipatory subject or object of a verb (§§ 387, 398, 405 with the note). It is also used as the formal but superfluous subject of an impersonal verb (§ 382, *note*), and as the vague representative of a cognate objective (§ 372, 3).

* Similarly, " Every one of these letters *are* in my name " (Shaksp. *Tw. N.*) ; " Nobody knows what it is to lose a friend till *they* have lost him " (*Fielding*). In Latin *quisque* and *uterque* are used with a plural verb. It is a construction which is regulated by the *sense* of the words, rather than by their mere *form.*

Anomalous Constructions.

477. A Personal Pronoun used as the complement of a verb of incomplete predication is sometimes put in the objective case instead of the nominative in colloquial language, as "That's *him*;" "Who is there? *Me*, sir." *

Expressions like these are probably formed on the analogy of the French 'c'est moi,' &c., which ousted the old construction (still found in Chaucer) 'It am I.' The change was perhaps facilitated by the fact that objective forms like *himself* could be used in apposition to nominatives, as 'he himself said' In dignified language the nominative is preferable, as 'It is I, be not afraid' (*Mark* vi. 50); "Lord, is it I"? (*Matt.* xxvi. 22).

478. No satisfactory *syntactical* explanation can be given of the use of the relative *whom* after *than*.† Even the demonstrative is sometimes similarly put in the objective case,‡ but this should be avoided.

The objective case is used in exclamations, as 'Ah me!'; 'Oh me unhappy.' The objective is in fact the natural case in which to put an *unattached pronoun*. It has been pointed out (§ 219, *note*) that the nominative forms are of late origin.

479. In such phrases as "a book of mine" we probably have merely a repetition of the idea of possession. We may say "That invention of yours is a useful one" to a man who had never made more than one (§ 144).

480. Pronouns often represent not some particular noun, but the *general fact* implied in a preceding sentence, as:—"When ye come together, *this* (i.e., *your coming together*) is not to eat the Lord's Supper;" "I did my best, but *it* (i.e. *my doing my best*) was of no use;" "He gained a prize, *which* (i.e., *his gaining a prize*) greatly pleased his friends."

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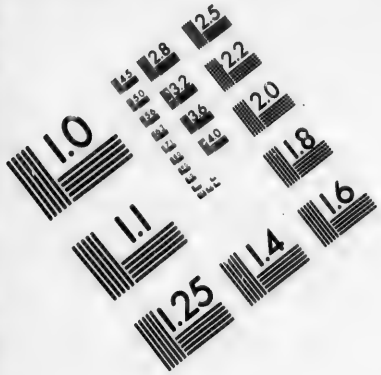
* Dr. Murray (*Dialect of the S. Counties of Scotland*, p. 187) points out that in Lowland Scotch the Personal Pronouns have not only a form which is distinctly and always nominative, and a form which is distinctly and always objective, but a separate form, based upon the old English objective, and used in certain circumstances either as a nominative or as an objective, like *moi, toi, lui* in French. It occurs in sentences which may be represented in our ordinary idiom by "Who is there? Me"; "That's him"; "Them that have"; "Me, I cannot go"; "Them and us did very well together," &c. The use of these objectives is a genuine idiom of our language as it is of French. It is quite a mistake to set it down as *bad grammar*. At a very early period we find *himself* and *themselves* used as nominatives.

It is to be observed, however, that the early part of the modern English period was marked by a great deal of irregularity and confusion in the use of the cases of the pronouns. In the time of Elizabeth not only were the objective forms often used as nominatives, but the nominatives were sometimes used as objectives. The interrogative *who?* is usually in the nominative form, even when it is the object of a verb. The confusion between *ye* and *you* (which are always distinct in Chaucer) has resulted in the general use of *you* for both cases.

† "Beelzebub . . . than whom, Satan except, none higher sat" (*Par. L.* ii.). The case of an interrogative or relative pronoun ought to be the same as that of the demonstrative pronoun which would answer to it. But "None sat higher than *him*" would be bad grammar. At the same time it is to be observed that, as the sentence stands, it would be impossible to fill up the ellipsis so as to make *who* the subject of a finite verb. There is not the slightest necessity for regarding *than* as a preposition, or as doing duty for one. We simply have another illustration of the idiom noticed above.

‡ *E.g.*, "A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both" (*Prov.* xxvii. 3).



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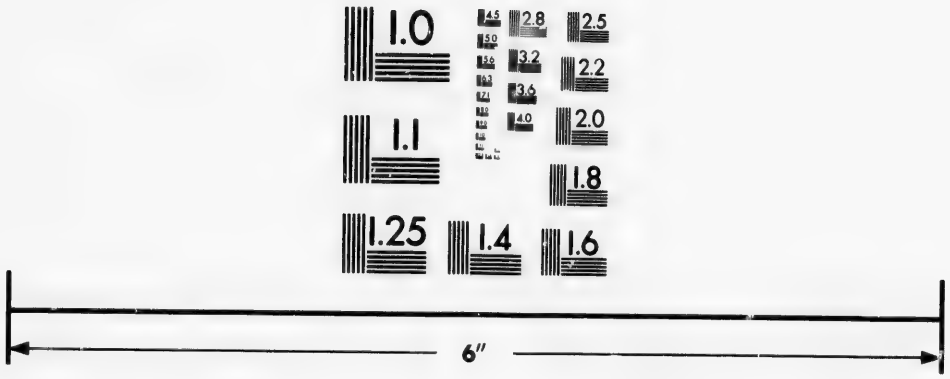

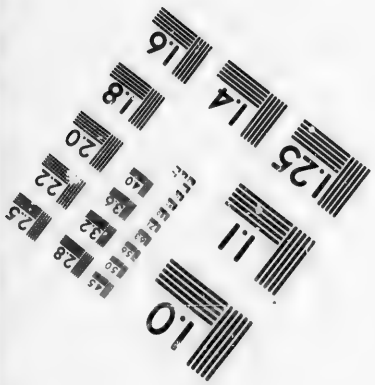

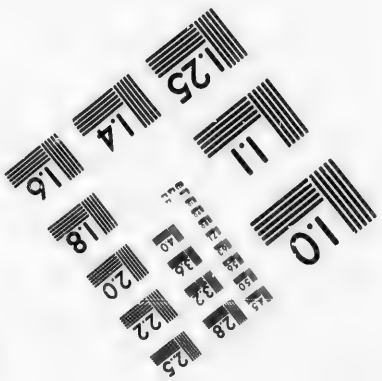

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SYNTAX OF VERBS.

Concord.

481. The general rule respecting the concord of verbs is, that a verb agrees with its subject in number and person (§§ 378—383).

482. Words that are plural in form (as *mathematics*, *politics*) are sometimes treated as singular in construction (§ 58), and some singular nouns have been mistaken for plurals (§ 59). A plural used as the title of a book, &c., must be treated as a singular, as "Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets' is a work of great interest;" and generally when a plural denotes a whole of some kind, the verb may be singular, as "Forty yards is a good distance;" "Two-thirds of this is mine by right;" "Twice two is four." For the usage when the subject is a collective noun, see § 380, and for the case of a compound subject, or of a noun in the singular to which other nouns are joined by means of *with*, §§ 381, 386.

483. When subjects differing in number, or person, or both, are connected by *and*, the verb must always be in the plural; and in the first person, if one of the subjects is of that person; in the second person, if one of the subjects is of that person, and none of the first, as, 'I and he are of the same age,' 'You and I shall be too late.'

484. Subjects connected by *either—or* and *neither—nor* imply an alternative. Hence a plural verb cannot be attached to two such subjects, if they are in the singular. The sentence is in fact contracted (§ 386), as, "Either John [is mistaken] or Thomas is mistaken"; "Neither John [is mistaken] nor Thomas is mistaken."

> This sort of contraction should be avoided if the subjects differ in number or person. Some writers tell us in such cases to make the verb agree with the nearest subject. This is just endurable if the difference is one of number only, and the plural subject comes next the verb, as "Neither the emperor nor his generals were convinced." But such sentences as "Either he or I am to blame," "Neither we nor John is rich" are abominable. It is better to say "Either he is to blame or I am"; "We are not rich, nor John either."* A singular verb must be used after each, every, either, neither, as "Every method *has* been tried." "Neither of them was in fault."

Use of the Moods.

485. Rules for the use of the **Imperative** Mood are superfluous. For its employment as the equivalent of a hypothesis see § 438.

486. The Indicative Mood is used in all kinds of declarative and interrogative sentences, whether principal or subordinate, in which

* Dr. Latham (*Handbook*, p. 181) gives as a rule that with a simple disjunctive the verb should agree with the first subject. Thus, "I or he am in the wrong"; "He or I is in the wrong;" "Thou or he art in the wrong"; "He or thou is in the wrong."

the Subjunctive is not requisite. It is essentially the Mood of Fact, or of Objective Predication (§ 190).

487. The nature and functions of the Subjunctive Mood are explained in § 192. It is essentially the Mood of Conception, or of Subjective Predication.

The Subjunctive Mood is employed—

1. In the direct expression of a wish (§ 192).
2. To express purpose after *that* and *lest* in an adverbial clause attached to a verb, or in a substantive clause in apposition to a noun denoting a wish, intention, or command (§§ 192, 428).
3. In adverbial clauses expressing hypothesis or concession contrary to the actual fact (§§ 430—433). The older writers used the simple subjunctive in the consequent clause in such cases, as "I *had fainted*, unless I had believed," &c.; "Hadst thou but shook thy head . . . deep shame *had struck* me dumb" (Sh. *K. John* iv. 3); "Wert thou regent of the world, it *were* a shame to let this land by lease' (*Rich. II.* ii. 1). The secondary or conditional form is now usual for the consequent clause, 'I should have fainted,' 'would have struck,' 'would be,' &c.
4. In hypotheses in which a general case is put (§ 436).
5. In hypothetical (or concessive) clauses relating to the future, when the hypothesis is presented as a mere conception of the mind, without regard to its being brought to the test of actual fact (§ 434).
6. In hypotheses with respect to the yet uncertain future, even when determination by actual fact is not excluded (§ 435). The subjunctive occurs also after *till* and *when* with reference to the future, as "Blow till thou *burst* thy wind" (Sh. *Temp.*). In these cases the subjunctive has been commonly superseded by the indicative.
7. In concessive clauses relating to the future, or in clauses relating to the present, if a general case be put, or if the concessive clause begin with the verb ("Be he ne'er so vile"; "Be the task as hard as it may," &c.

488. In poetry and in the older writers we find the *simple* present subjunctive after 'that' and 'lest' to express purpose, as "Give me leave that I may turn the key, that no man *enter*" (*Rich. II.* v. 3); "Keep thy heart light, lest it *make* thee sink" (*Shelley*). In ordinary prose we now use the compounds of '*may*' and '*might*' after 'that' (as "He locks the door that no man *may enter*"; "He locked the door that no man *might enter*"), and the compound of '*should*' after 'lest,' whether the preceding verb be in the present or in the past tense (as "Govern thy appetite, lest sin *should surprise* thee"; "He governed his appetite, lest sin *should surprise* him").

489. Certain uses of the subjunctive which have now become obsolete are noticed in § 192, p. 68.

Sequence of Tenses.

490. The tense of the verb in an accessory or dependent clause commonly depends upon that of the verb in the principal clause. A present or future in the principal clause requires a present or future indicative, or a present subjunctive, in the dependent clause. A past tense in the main clause requires a past tense in the dependent clause; *e.g.*, "He does this that he may please me"; "He will do this that he may please me"; "He has done this that he *may* please me"; "He did this that he might please me"; "He says that he is better"; "He said that he was better," &c. But if the dependent clause states a *universal truth*, it is better to keep the present tense. Thus: "He allowed that all men *are* liable to error"; "He denied that God *exists*."

Some verbs (as *ought, must, need*) cannot express past or perfect tense. When past time is referred to, it has to be expressed by putting the dependent infinitive into the perfect, as "You ought *to have gone* there yesterday" (= it was your duty to go there yesterday); "He must *have been* out of his senses when he did that," &c. Even when the principal verb can be put into a past tense, a perfect infinitive is often used, especially to show that the event is no longer possible, as "I hoped *to have been* present"; "She was *to have been married* next week."

491. English admits of a good deal of freedom in the use of tenses. Thus the same sequence of events may be found expressed in all the following ways*:—

"Before the cock crow twice, thou deniest me thrice" (*Anglo-Saxon*).
"Before the cock crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice."
"Before the cock has crowed twice, thou shalt deny me thrice."
"Before the cock shall crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice."
"Before the cock has crowed twice, thou shalt have denied me thrice."
"Before the cock shalt have crowed twice, thou shalt have denied me thrice."

492. The **Infinitive Mood** presents itself in three forms:—

A. As the **Pure** or **Simple Infinitive** without '*to*' (§ 194).
B. As the **Gerundial Infinitive**, with '*to*' before it (§ 196).
C. As the **Strengthened Gerundial Infinitive**, preceded by '*for to*.' This form is now obsolete, except as an indirect predicate in a somewhat modified form (§ 387, *note*).

A. The **Pure Infinitive** is used—

1. As the **Subject** of a sentence, usually preceded by the temporary subject 'it'; as "Will it please you *hear* me?" (Shaksp. *Ant. and Cl.*); "Him booteth not *resist*" (*Spenser*); "It were best not *know* myself" (*Shaksp.*). This use of it is no longer customary.
2. As the **Object** of various verbs of incomplete predication, as *do, shall, will, may, must, can, dare, need, ought* (in the older writers). It

* See Lounsbury's 'History of the English Language' (a capital little manual by a sound scholar).

was formerly used after verbs denoting thinking of some kind, as "He wende *have crope* (= he thought to have crept) by his felaw" (*Chaucer*).

3. As the **Object** of the verb *have* when that verb is one of incomplete predication with the complement *lief, rather, better, best*, &c., as "You had better *go* home"; "I had rather *die* than *suffer* such disgrace."
4. As an **Indirect Predicate**, attached to a substantive, and forming with it a phrase which may be the object of a verb (§§ 387, 397).
5. After the preposition '*but*,' as 'I cannot but *admire* his courage.'
6. In the older writers it often forms an adverbial adjunct, as "I will go *seek* the king"; "Help me *curse* this bottle-spider."

B. The **Gerundial** or **Prepositional Infinitive** is used—

1. As the **Subject** of a sentence (§§ 195, 196).
2. As the **Complement** of a verb of Incomplete Predication (§ 394), as "To be good is to be happy"; "He seems *to be* in trouble."
3. As the **Object** of a verb, as "He professed *to know* all about it"; "I want *to speak* to you"; "I have *to leave* directly." This is especially common when the object at the same time marks the *purpose* of the action, as "He sought *to slay* him"; "I purposed *to write* to you" (§§ 194, 196).
4. As an **Indirect Predicate**, attached to a substantive, and forming with it a phrase which may be the Subject or Object of a verb, or come after a preposition (§§ 387, 397).
5. As an **Adverbial Adjunct** of another verb, or of an adjective, as "I went *to see* him"; "You are *to go* home"; "That is *to say*"; "Help me *to finish* my task"; "He left the poor man *to bleed* to death"; "It came *to pass*"; "I am ready *to faint*"; "Swift *to pursue*"; "Likely *to be* successful"; "I am happy *to hear* it"; "He was the first *to arrive*" (§§ 196, 372, 4).
6. As an **Attributive Adjunct** of a substantive, as "A house *to let*"; "He came on purpose *to fetch* me (i.e., on or with the purpose of fetching me") (§ 362, 4).
7. After a preposition: "He is about *to speak*"; "There is nothing left but *to submit*" (§ 196).

C. The **Infinitive with 'for to'** commonly expressed purpose, as "Came to Joseph *for to buy* corn (*Gen.* xli. 57). It was also used as the Subject or Object of another verb, as "Unto a poure ordre *for to give* is signe," &c. (*Chaucer*); "Ye leve logik, and lerneth *for to lovye*" (*Piers Pl.* 14424). For the use of this infinitive as an Indirect Predicate see § 387, *note*.

The *to* of an infinitive mood should never be separated from its verb by an adverb. Such phrases as, 'To rightly use,' 'To really understand' are improper.

493. The origin and construction of the **gerund** in *-ing* are explained in § 200. When a verbal substantive in *-ing* is preceded by *the* or followed by *of*, it must be regarded as the representative of a verbal noun in *-ung*, as in "land suitable for the planting of trees"; "During the reading of the will," &c. When preceded by *the*, it should be followed by *of*. When the verbal noun in *-ing* has an object, like a verb, it is the gerund.

494. The use of a participle where we ought to have a gerund, is a common error, as in "I heard of *him running* away," instead of 'I heard of his running away'; "It is of no use you saying so," for 'It is of no use your saying so' (*i.e.*, 'It—namely your saying so—is of no use'). In the case of personal and relative pronouns the gerund and possessive should always be used, as in the preceding sentences. With *this, that, each, all, either, neither*, the participial construction is proper, as "You will oblige me by *all leaving* the room"; "I have my doubts as to *this being* true"; "You seem to understand me, by *each* at once her choppy finger *laying* upon her skinny lips" (*Macbeth*). The best writers also give sentences like the following:—"The jealousy of his contemporaries prevented *justice being* done to him during his lifetime"; "I am afraid of *mischief resulting* from this"; "On some *brandy* being administered to him he revived"; "There is no record of any *payment* having been made"; "There was a story of *money having* been buried there"; "I then all smarting with *my wounds being* cold" (*Shaksp.*); "Upon *Nigel insisting*," &c. (*Scott*). These are instances of the use of an Indirect Predicate (§ 397), and are analogous to the Latin *post urbem cond tam*, &c. On the other hand, most authorities would prefer "On *the boy's confessing* his fault I forgave him"; "On my father's hearing of this he was amazed." It will be observed that in such sentences the noun in the possessive case is commonly repeated in the form of a demonstrative pronoun, 'I forgave *him*,' '*He* was amazed.'

495. Respecting the curious *passive* sense often given to an *active* verb or participle see § 183, and add to the examples there given such as "The horses are *putting* to," "I want a button *sewing* on," &c.

496. The extensive use of the Impersonal Verb in early English is noticed in § 382, as also the change of the impersonal into the personal construction, which gives rise to various anomalous phrases, as 'I dislike' for 'it mislikes me'; 'I please' for 'it pleases me'; 'I were better' for 'it were better for me,' &c.

497. Constructions are sometimes adapted to the *general sense* of words and phrases rather than to their strictly *grammatical* force. Thus: "I *am afraid* (= *I fear*) that he will not come"; "Bid [illegible] *be judge* (= *judge*) whether Bassanio had not once a friend." So we say "There *are* one or two mistakes here," because *one or two* stands for some small number exceeding *one*.

When a plural denotes a *whole* of some kind, the verb may be in the singular, as "Forty yards is a good distance"; "Two-thirds of this is mine by right"; "Twice two is four."* So "This fourteen years"; "A tedious twelve years"; "A twelvemonth."

498. Great caution must be used in elliptical sentences (especially with *as* and *than*) to see that the right cases are used. The best way is to test the sentence by filling up the ellipsis, as "He loves me

* We say 'twice five is ten,' because 'twice five' is treated as a single sum, though the full phrase of course is "twice five things are ten things." The *amount* is considered rather than the mode of its formation. When the latter idea is prominent, the plural is better, as 'twice five make ten!' The use of the plural *times* does not affect the question, because in 'three times ten is thirty,' *times* is not the subject of the sentence. *Three times* is an adverbial adjunct of the numeral *ten*, like *twice* or *thrice*.

better than [he loves] thee"; "He loves me better than thou [lovest me]"; "He knows the man as well as I [know the man]"; "He knows the man as well as [he knows] me"; "I know no wiser man than he [is wise]" is correct; but "I have no other saint than *thou* to pray to" is wrong, because the construction springs out of "I have no other saint when [I have] thee."

499. A good deal of hypercriticism has been wasted on such phrases as "The three first verses of the chapter," &c. We are told that this is incorrect, because there is only one first verse. On this principle it is equally wrong to talk of 'The first hours of infancy,' or 'The last days of Pompeii,' for there is only *one* first hour, and *one* last day. Surely if there are several last days, their number may be specified. It would be the height of pedantry to alter "His two eldest sons went to sea" into "His eldest two sons went to sea"; yet strictly there can be only one eldest son. German writers see nothing wrong in such phrases as "die drei ersten," "die zwei letzten," &c. All these superlatives admit of a little laxity in their application, just as *chief* and *extreme* admit of the superlatives *chiefest* and *extremest*. 'The three first verses' simply means 'The three verses before which there is no other.' Those who tell us to write 'The first three verses,' and so on, must do so on the hypothesis that the whole number of verses is divided into *sets of three*, of which *sets* the first is taken. But what if the chapter contains only five altogether?

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

SEPARATION OF LOGICAL SUBJECT AND LOGICAL PREDICATE.

500. The first stage in the analysis of a simple sentence is to separate the grammatical subject with its adjuncts from the predicate verb with whatever is attached to it as object, complement, or adverbial adjunct. The grammatical subject with its attributive adjuncts forms the *logical* subject of the sentence; the predicate verb, with all that is attached to it, forms the *logical* predicate of the sentence (§ 355).

Examples.

Logical Subject. (*Grammatical Subject with Attributive Adjuncts.*)	*Logical Predicate.* (*Predicate Verb, with Objective and Adverbial Adjuncts.*)
Our messenger	has not arrived.
We	will carry all our property with us.
The village preacher's modest mansion	rose there.
The wretched prisoner, overwhelmed by his misfortunes,	was on the point of putting an end to his existence.
A bird in the hand	is worth two in the bush.

Analysis of the Logical Subject.

501. The following example illustrates the separation of the logical subject into the grammatical subject and its attributive adjuncts (§ 388).

"*The soldiers of the tenth legion, wearied by their long march, and exhausted from want of food, were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.*"

Logical Subject.		*Logical Predicate.*
Grammatical Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	
Soldiers	1. The 2. of the tenth legion 3. wearied by their long march 4. exhausted from want of food	ere unable to resist the onset of the enemy.

Analysis of the Logical Predicate.

In the following examples the logical predicate is separated into its component parts :—

Logical Subject.	*Logical Predicate.*		
	Predicate Verb.	*Object, with Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts.*
The sight of distress	fills	a benevolent mind	1. always 2. with compassion.
We	will bend	our course	1. thither 2. from off the tossing of these fiery waves.

Analysis of both Subject and Predicate.

502. In the following example both the subject and the object of the verb are separated into the substantive and the attributive adjuncts of which they are composed :—

"The mournful tidings of the death of his son filled the proud heart of the old man with the keenest anguish."

Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	*Predicate.*	*Object.*	*Attributive Adjuncts of Object.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*
tidings	1. The 2. mournful 3. of the death of his son	filled	heart	1. the 2. proud 3. of the old man	with the keenest anguish

Analysis of Complex Predicate.

503. The following examples show how a complex predicate (§§ 391—396) may be separated into its components :—

"That hero was deservedly called the saviour of his country."

Subject with Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*		*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	*Subjective Complement.*	*Adverbial Adjunct of Verb.*	*Adverbial Adjunct of Complement.*
that hero	was called	the saviour of his country	deservedly	

"This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life."

Subject with Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*		*Object with Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	*Objective Complement.*		*Adjunct of Verb.*	*Adjunct of Complement.*
This misfortune	will make	miserable	the poor man	certainly	for life

Complete Analysis of a Sentence.

504. The thorough analysis of a sentence is to be conducted in the following manner :—

i. Set down the subject of the sentence. (See § 384, &c., for a statement of what the subject may consist of.)

ii. Set down the words, phrases, or adjective clauses which may form attributive adjuncts of the subject. (See § 388 for a list of what these may consist of.)

iii. Set down the predicate verb. If the verb is one of incomplete predication, set down the complement of the predicate, and indicate that the verb and its complement make up the entire predicate (§§ 391—395).

iv. If the predicate be a transitive verb, set down the object of the verb (see §§ 369, 397). If the predicate be a verb of incomplete predication followed by an infinitive mood, set down the object of the dependent infinitive (§ 396).

v. Set down those words, phrases, or adjective clauses which are in the attributive relation to the object of the predicate, or to the object of the complement of the predicate, if the latter be a verb in the infinitive mood (§ 399).

vi. Set down those words, phrases, or adverbial clauses which are in the adverbial relation to the predicate, or to the complement of the predicate. (See § 372 for a list of what these may consist of.)

505. These various elements of the sentence may be arranged either in the mode adopted in the following examples, or in that indicated in the table at the end of the book.

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

506. "*Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead with a single blow of his sword.*"

Subject,	'officer.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject,	1. 'the' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'enraged' (§ 362, 1). 3. 'having ridden up to the spot' (§ 362, 1).
Predicate made up of	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'struck.' *Objective complement* (§ 395), 'dead.'
Object,	'man.'
Attributive adjuncts of object,	1. 'the.' 2. 'unfortunate.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	1. 'on the spot' (§ 372, 4). 2. 'with a single blow of his sword' (§ 372, 4).

507. "*Coming home, I saw an officer with a drawn sword riding along the street.*"

Here 'with a drawn sword' is an attributive adjunct of the object 'officer' (§ 362, 4).

508. "*I asked him his business.*"

Subject,	'I.'
Predicate verb,	'asked.'
Primary object,	'him' (§ 370).
Secondary object,	'his business' (§ 370).

509. "*He was asked his business.*"

Subject, 'he'; *Predicate,* 'was asked'; *Object* (or *Adverbial Adjunct*) of the predicate, 'his business.' (See § 370.)

510. "*They granted him liberty.*"

Subject,	'they.'
Predicate verb,	'granted.'
Direct object,	'liberty' (§ 369).
Indirect object,	'him' (§ 369).

511. "*Help was refused him.*"

Here *him* is the indirect object of the passive verb 'was refused' (§ 370).

"*He was refused help.*"

Here 'help' may be called either an *object* or an *adverbial adjunct* of 'was refused' (§ 370; 372, 3), or 'was refused help' may be taken all together as forming a complex passive phrase.

512. "*It is I.*"

Subject,	'It.'
Predicate made up of	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.' *Subjective complement,* 'I' (§ 393).

"*Who are you*?*"

Subject,	you.'
Predicate made up of	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'are.' *Subjective complement,* 'who?'

513. "*You must not speak so fast.*"

Subject,	'you.'	
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'must.'	
	Complement (infinitive),	'talk' (§ 396).
Adverbial adjuncts,	1. (*of* '*must*')	'not.'
	2. (*of* '*talk*')	'so fast.'

514. "*Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the East.*"

Subject,	'star.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject,	1. 'the' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'bright' (§ 362, 1). 3. 'day's harbinger' (§ 362, 2).
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'comes.' *Subjective complement,* 'dancing' (§ 391).
Adverbial adjunct of the predicate,	'from the East' (§ 372, 4).

* The construction of the interrogative sentence is the same as that of the declarative answer, "I am he."

515. "*A man of weak health is incapable of the thorough enjoyment of life.*"

Subject, 'man.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'a' (§ 362, 1). 2. 'of weak health' (§ 362, 4).
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' *Complement of predicate*, 'incapable' (§ 393).
Adverbial adjunct of the complement of the predicate, 'of the thorough enjoyment of life' (§ 372, 4).

516. "*He is believed to have perished.*"

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is believed.' *Complement of predicate*, 'to have perished' (§ 394).

517. "*The bell sounds cracked.*"

Here 'cracked' is the subjective complement of the verb 'sounds,' which (for the purpose in hand) is a verb of incomplete predication (§ 391).

518. "*He struck the man dead with a single blow.*"

Here 'struck is a verb of incomplete predication, and 'dead' is its (objective) complement. The object of the sentence is not to state that 'a blow was given,' but that 'the blow given was a mortal one' (§ 391).

519. "*They made Claudius emperor.*"

Subject, 'they.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'made.' *Complement of predicate* (*factitive object*), 'emperor.'
Object, 'Claudius.'

520. "*We felt the ground tremble.*"

Subject, 'we.'
Predicate verb, 'felt.'
Object (*substantive with indirect predicate*), 'the ground tremble.'

521. "*Let us pray.*"

Subject (*understood*), 'you.'
Predicate verb, 'let.'
Object (*substantive pronoun with indirect predicate*), 'us pray.'

522. "*The duke will never grant this forfeiture to hold.*"

The object of the predicate 'will grant' is the Infinitive Phrase 'this forfeiture to hold,' made up of a noun 'forfeiture' with an indirect predicate 'to hold.'

523. "*How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes ill deeds done.*"

We may treat the object of 'makes' as being the phrase 'ill deeds done,' where 'done' forms an indirect predicate to 'deeds.' It is also

possible to make 'done' the complement of 'makes,' treating the latter as a verb of incomplete predication.

524. "*I must not have you question me.*"

Here the predicate is made up of the verb of incomplete predication 'must' and its complement 'have.' The object of the verb is the phrase 'you question me,' made up of 'you' and the indirect predicate 'question me,' attached to 'you' (§ 397). In each of the following sentences the predicate is followed by an object of the same kind:—"I heard *the man say so*"; "Make *the bells ring*"; "Let *the cattle be sold.*"

525. "*It is pleasant to feel the sun's warmth.*"

Provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subject, 'to feel the sun's warmth.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Complement (*subjective*), 'pleasant.'

526. "*It is time to go.*"

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Complement (*noun with attributive adjunct.* See § 362, 4), 'time to go' (i.e. 'time for going').

527. "*It is time for the work to be finished.*"

Here the complement of the predicate is the noun 'time' accompanied by an attributive adjunct made up of a preposition ('for') followed by the substantive phrase 'the work to be finished,' where 'to be finished' is the indirect predicate of 'the work' (§ 317, *note*).

528. "*It is shameful for such waste to be allowed.*"

The meaning of the sentence is 'That such waste should be allowed is shameful.' In the language of Chaucer's time this would be expressed by 'Such waste to be allowed is shameful,' or 'Such waste for to be allowed is shameful.' (See quotation from Wycliffe in § 387, *note*.) The sentence as it stands is based upon this last form, only the *for* has got slightly displaced.

Provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subject (*substantive phrase with indirect predicate*), 'for such waste to be allowed.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Complement of predicate, 'shameful.'

529. "*I had rather* stay at home.*"

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'had.
Complement of predicate, 'rather.'
Object (*infinitive phrase*), 'stay at home.'

* The explanation of this construction is not easy. It is frequently said that *had* is a corruption of *would*. If this were so, the difficulty would vanish: but there is good reason for believing that *had* is quite correct. The analogous construction with *lief* is unquestionably genuine. *E.g.*, "*I had as lief not be, as live to be in awe of such a thing as I myself*"

530. "*And now, their mightiest quelled, the battle swerved, with many an inroad gored.*"

Subject,		'battle.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject,	1.	*Article,* 'the.'
	2.	*Participial phrase,* 'with many an inroad gored.'
Predicate,		'swerved.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	1.	*Adverb,* 'now.'
	2.	*Noun with attributive adjunct, in the nominative absolute,* 'their mightiest quelled' (§ 372, 5).

531. It is often difficult to decide whether an adverbial adjunct should be taken as modifying the predicate, or as modifying some adjective.

Thus the sentence "He is nearly ready" may mean either "He wants but little of being ready" (just as when we say "He nearly fainted," i.e., 'was within a little of fainting'), or, "He is in a state which approaches readiness." It matters little which explanation is adopted. In "We were nearly killed," it is obviously best to take 'nearly' as modifying the predicate 'were killed.' In "The work is half finished," the adverb 'half,' had better be taken with the adjective 'finished.'

532. "*All but one were killed.*"

Here the adverbial adjunct 'but one' (A.S. *bútan ánum*) may be taken as modifying the adjective 'all' (§§ 284, 372, 4), just as when we say 'nearly all.' At the same time, if we look at such a sentence as "All except one were killed," we see that 'except one,' *i.e.*, 'one being excepted' forms a nominative absolute which can hardly go with anything but the predicate. Similarly 'but one' might be treated as equivalent to 'leaving out one,' or 'if we leave out one.' It would then be an adverbial adjunct of the verb. Similar remarks apply to such a sentence as "None but the brave deserves the fair." It may mean either

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(Shakspeare, *Julius Cæsar*, i. 2); as also that with the comparative *liefer* or *liever*. Thus we find in Chaucer: "*Ne never had I thing so lief, ne liever*" (*Frank. Tale*). This last example gives us a good clue to the construction. *Lief* and *liever* are *adjectives* (not *adverbs*) agreeing with the object of the verb *have*, which in this construction is a verb of incomplete predication (*Gr.* 391, 395), so that *lief* and *liefer*, or *liever*, are its *complements*. (Compare the phrases *lieb haben*, and *lieber haben*, in German.) At present the use of the phrase *to have lief* is restricted to cases where the object of the verb *have* is a verb in the infinitive mood, and the adjective *lief* is qualified by the adverb *as*. The use of the comparative *liefer* or *liever* is obsolete. Now, in old English, we find *rathe* (*early* or *ready*): comp. *rather*, superl. *rathest*, used as adjectives. Milton speaks of *the rathe primrose*, and Spenser of *the rather* (*i.e.*, *earlier*) *lambs*. Thus, by taking *rather* as an adjective (giving the idea of *preference*, which easily springs out of the radical notion of the word), we get in the phrase *to have rather* a construction precisely analogous to that in *to have lief* (that is, to *hold* or regard as *dear* or *desirable*), or *to have liefer*: *have* being a verb of incomplete predication, *rather* its complement, and the dependent infinitive the object of *have*. Let it be observed that *I had sooner do so and so* is bad English. *Sooner* is not an adjective. We must say, *I would sooner*, &c. *I would rather* is good English, because *rather* is an adverb as well as an adjective. In the phrase *I had rather*, the verb *had* is in the subjunctive mood.

The phrase 'you had *better*' cannot be explained in a similar way, because 'had' does not imply 'regarding' or 'considering.' The phrase has probably been assimilated to *had rather* or *had liever* through a false analogy either from 'you would better,' or 'you were better,' the remarkable personal form which replaced the impersonal construction 'it was better for you' (§ 332, *note*).

"None outside the class *brave* deserves the fair," or "Leaving out the class *brave*, none deserves the fair."

In such a sentence as "Who but a madman would act thus?" it is simpler to take 'but a madman' as modifying the subject "who outside the class 'madman,'" or "who that is not a madman." *

533. "*But being charged, we will be still by land*" (*Antony and Cleopatra*, iv. 11, 1).

Here 'but being charged' is a gerund preceded by the preposition *but*, and means 'leaving out the case of being charged.' The phrase forms an adverbial adjunct to the predicate verb *will be*. The sentence means, "Unless we are attacked, we will make no movement by land."

534. "*Whence, but from the author of all ill, could spring so deep a malice?*"

Here an adverbial phrase instead of a substantive seems to follow the preposition *but*. The use of the gerund after *but* in the last example, however, suggests that the full phrase should be *but springing from the author of all ill*, that is, "Without springing from the author of all ill," or, "If we leave out the case of springing from the author of all ill, whence could so deep a malice spring?" So, "Matchless but with the Almighty," is "Matchless but (being matched) with the Almighty."†

A similar explanation may be given of such phrases as, "He never comes *but when he is not wanted*, *i.e.*, 'but (*coming*) when he is not wanted;' so 'except when he is not wanted,' may be treated as '*coming* when he is not wanted being excepted.' We do however, find adverbs standing for qualified substantives, and preceded by prepositions. *Before now* is equivalent to *before the present time*.

535. "*He does everything but attend to his own business.*"

Here the preposition 'but' with the infinitive 'attend' forms a limiting adjunct to 'everything' (§§ 362, 4). Compare 'all but one,' § 532.

536. "*He does nothing but play all day long.*"

Here also 'but play' may be taken as a limiting adjunct of 'nothing (§§ 362, 4; 284).

537. "*I have but one friend in the world.*"

In such sentences 'but' is usually treated as an adverb, meaning 'only.' The construction, however, has in fact arisen from the improper omission of a negative (note * *p.* 124). The sentence at full length would be "I have not, but that I have (*or* but having, *i.e.*, leaving out having) one friend, a friend in the world."

* It is also possible (see note on § 291, p. 124), when 'but' comes after a negative, or a question which implies a negative answer, to treat *but* with the substantive that follows it as the residuum of an elliptical adverbial clause, *but* being a conjunction and the substantive the subject of a verb understood. Such a clause would, of course, form an adverbial adjunct of the predicate; "but [that] a madman [would act thus], who would act thus"? We might also fill up the ellipsis thus:—"Who, but (= unless) he be a madman, would act thus?"

† It will be found that this explanation is the key to a great many troublesome constructions in which 'but' plays a part. Thus, "He was all but killed" = 'he was all but (= except) being killed'; "He lived but a month" = 'he lived [not] but [living] a month."

538. "*I can but lament the result.*"

Here also a negative has been improperly omitted. Indeed the sense is much the same if we say 'I cannot but lament the result.' The sentence may be explained in two ways, as being the residuum either of 'I cannot [do anything] but lament the result' (see § 535), or 'I cannot [do anything] but [that I can] lament the result' (see § 291 and note * p. 124).

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

539. A Substantive Clause (or Noun Sentence, as it is often called *) does the same sort of work in a sentence as a Noun. An Adjective Clause does the same sort of work as an Adjective. An Adverbial Clause does the same sort of work as an Adverb.

It follows that every subordinate clause is an integral part of the entire sentence, and has the same relation to some constituent part of the sentence as if it were a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the analysis of a complex sentence this relation must be clearly indicated.†

540. When there are subordinate clauses, the analysis of the entire sentence must first be conducted *as if for each subordinate clause we had some single word.* When the relation of the several clauses to the main sentence and to each other has thus been clearly marked, the subordinate clauses are to be analysed on the same principles as simple sentences. Mere conjunctions (§ 286) do not enter into the grammatical structure of the clauses which they introduce. No combination of words forms a *dependent sentence* without a *finite verb* expressed or understood.

541. It will greatly conduce to the clearness of the analysis, if subordinate clauses are underlined in different ways, so as to indicate their nature. A thick line may denote a substantive clause, a thin line an adjective

* Respecting the use of the terms *Sentence* and *Clause* see § 401, *note*.

† It is a common practice in treatises on Analysis to ignore this. In dealing with such a sentence as "The manager declared that the alarm which spread through the audience when the noise was heard, was quite groundless," we shall commonly find it split up, *to begin with*, into separate parts, thus:—

A. The manager declared.
B. That the alarm was quite groundless.
C. Which spread through the audience.
D. When the noise was heard.

We shall then be told that B is "a noun sentence to A; C is an adjective sentence to B; and D is an adverbial sentence to C." This is objectionable. To talk of one sentence being 'a noun sentence to another' is simply meaningless. Who ever talks of a *noun* being 'a *noun to* a sentence. A noun has *some definite function* to fulfil in a sentence. It is a subject or an object, or in apposition to another noun, or governed by a preposition. A Substantive Clause (or noun sentence) *has exactly the same function as a noun*, and any system of analysis which ignores this, and shirks the trouble of explaining *what that function is*, is faulty and misleading. In the example given above, it is *absolutely incorrect* to say that the main sentence is 'The manager declared.' We have not got a complete sentence of any kind till the object of the verb 'declared' has been stated. Moreover, this practice leads beginners to suppose that a subordinate sentence is something which is *tacked on to* something else which is complete in itself. It certainly saves trouble; but if saving trouble is the main thing to be considered, that object will be most completely realized by leaving Analysis alone altogether.

clause, and a dotted line an adverbial clause. If a subordinate clause contains others, the line proper to the *containing* clause must first be drawn under the whole, *including what is contained*, and then the contained clause must be further underlined in its own way. Then if a number be placed at the beginning of the line by which a subordinate clause is underscored, and the same number be attached by a bracket to the word to which the clause is related, being placed *before* the word (verb) when the clause is a subject, or *after* in other cases (thus 2. *appears*, or *heard* 3.), the relation of the parts of the sentence will be visible at a glance. Thus:—

"I have heard 1.) that my brother has lost at play the money 2.)
(1.)
which was given 3.) to him that he might pay his debts."
(2)
(3)

This shows at a glance the degree of subordination of the various clauses, and the way in which they are built into the structure of the entire sentence. This method will be adopted in the examples that follow. Each clause, as it is reached in the analysis, may be denoted for subsequent reference by the number placed before the line under it. This underlining and numbering, however, is not *essential* to the Analysis.

SENTENCES CONTAINING SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. A Substantive Clause as the Subject of a Verb.

542. "*That you have wronged me* (1 *doth appear in this.*"
(1)

Subject (*substantive clause*), 'that you have wronged me' (1).
Predicate, 'doth appear.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'in this.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'have wronged.'
Object, 'me.'

543. "*It* (2 *is not true that he said that.*"
(2)

Temporary or provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subj. (*substantive clause*), 'that he said that.'
Predicate, made up of { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' / *Subjective complement*, 'true.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'

544. "(1. *Methinks the lady doth protest too much.*"
(1)

Subject, [*that*] 'the lady doth protest too much' (1).
Predicate, 'thinks' (*i.e.*, 'appears,' see § 244).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, '[to] me.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject,	'lady.'
Attributive adjunct of subject,	'the.'
Predicate,	'doth protest.'
Object,	'too much.'

545. "(1. *Him thought his sorrowful heart would break.*"
(1)

Here the substantive clause, "[*that*] his sorrowful heart would break," is the subject of the verb *thought.*

II. A Substantive Clause as the Object of a Verb.

546. "*You know* 1) *very well that I never said so.*"
(1)

Subject,	'you.'
Predicate,	'know.'
Object (*substantive clause*),	'that I never said so' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate,	'very well.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject,	'I.'
Predicate,	'said.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	1. 'never.' 2. 'so.'*

547. "*He asked* 1) *me how old I was.*" (See § 404.)
(1)

Subject,	'he.'
Predicate,	'asked.'
First object,	'me.'
Second object (*substantive clause*). (See § 370.)	'how old I was'(1).

Analysis of (1).

Subject,	'I.'
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'was.' *Subjective complement,* 'old.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement,	'how.'

548. "*Tell me what you bought at the fair*" (§ 410).

Here the direct object of the predicate verb is the substantive clause 'what you bought at the fair,' which should be analysed.

Subject,	'you.'
Predicate,	'bought.'
Object (*interrogative pronoun*),	'what.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate,	'at the fair.'

549. (1) "*I told him that he was mistaken.*" (2) "*I convinced him that he was mistaken.*"

In the first sentence *him* answers to the Latin *dative* case, and is an adverbial adjunct to the predicate *told*, the *object* of which is the sub-

* It is also possible to treat 'so' as a demonstrative pronoun, the *object* of 'said' (§ 150).

stantive clause "that he was mistaken." In the second sentence *him* is the direct object of the verb, and the substantive clause (like the Latin *Accusative of Limitation*) forms an adverbial adjunct of the predicate (§ 407). The first sentence is equivalent to "He was mistaken. I told him *that*;" the second to "He was mistaken. I convinced him *with respect to that*."

III. A Substantive Clause in Apposition to a Noun.

550. "*Who can want the thought* 1) *how monstrous it was for Malcolm and Donalbain to kill their gracious father.*"
(1)

Analysis of Substantive Clause.

Provisional subject,	'it.'
Real subject,	'to kill their gracious father.'
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'was.' *Subjective complement,* 'monstrous.'
Adverbial adjuncts,	1. (*of verb*)—'for Malcolm and Donalbain.' 2. (*of complement*)—'how.'

Or the clause may be treated as springing out of the construction of an infinitive clause where Malcolm and Donalbain would be subjects of the indirect predicate 'for to kill' (§§ 528 and 387, *note*) :—

Provisional subject,	'it.'
Real subject.	'for M. and D. to kill their gracious father.'
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'was.' *Complement,* 'how monstrous.'

551. "*The hope* 1) *that I shall be successful sustains me.*"
(1)

The substantive clause 'that I shall be successful,' may be termed vaguely an *enlargement* of the subject *hope*, or it may be called (more exactly) an *objective adjunct* of the noun.*

Such sentences as "There is no proof that he said so," "There was a report that you were dead," should be dealt with in a similar manner.

IV. A Substantive Clause after a Preposition.

552. "*Spare me not for that I was his father Edward's son.*"

The construction is of the same type as 'Spare me not, for this reason,' the substantive after the preposition 'for' being *a substantive clause*. Consequently 'for that—son' forms an adverbial adjunct (§ 372, 4) to 'spare.'

* An objective case follows a transitive verb, not because the verb is a declarative word, but because it denotes an action directed to some object. Gerunds (*i.e.* verbal *nouns*) have objects after them and other nouns *implying* a transitive action may have a substantive clause after them as an object. Such a clause may be termed an *objective adjunct* of the noun. (See § 406.)

553. "*I have sinned in that I have betrayed the innocent blood*" (*Matt.* xxvii. 4).

The construction is of the type "I have sinned *in this*," the place of the substantive pronoun *this* being taken by the substantive clause "that I have betrayed," &c.

554. "*I should have forgiven him, but* 2) *that he repeated the offence.*"

(2)

Here we have a substantive clause preceded by the preposition *but*,* the whole phrase forming an adverbial adjunct of the predicate "should have forgiven" (§ 372, 4).

555. "*Never dream but that ill must come of ill.*"

The simplest mode of explaining this is to supply the word 'anything' as the object of 'dream.' "Never dream [anything] but that ill must come of ill," where *but* with the substantive clause that follows it forms a limiting adjunct of *anything* conveying the sense "Never dream anything *excluding the case* that ill must come of ill." Such a sentence as "Who knows but that my father may consent?" may be dealt with in the same way.

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

556. An **Adjective Clause** is always in the **Attributive Relation to some noun or pronoun** in the sentence of which it forms a part (§ 408).

557. "*The cohort* 1) *which had already crossed the river, quickly came to blows with the enemy*,"

(1)

Subject,	'cohort.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject,	1. *Article*, 'the.' 2. *Adjective clause*, 'which had already crossed the river' (1).
Predicate,	'came.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	1. 'quickly.' 2. 'to blows.' 3. 'with the enemy.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject,	'which.'
Predicate,	'had crossed.'
Object,	'river.'
Attributive adjunct to object,	'the.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate,	'already.'

* When 'that' is omitted, so that 'but' is left to supply its connective function, it is better to treat *but* as a conjunction (see § 291). The clause *introduced* by the 'but' then becomes *adverbial*.

558. "*Give me that large book* 2) *that you have in your hand.*"
(2)

Here the adjective clause, "that you have in your hand," is in the attributive relation to the object 'book.' The relative *that* is the object of *have.*

559. "*Give* 3) *me what you have in your hand.*"
(3)

Here the adjective clause, "what you have in your hand," is used substantively, that is, without having its antecedent *that* expressed. In the analysis we may either introduce the word *that*, the object of *give*, and set down the relative adjective clause as an attributive adjunct to it, or we may at once call the adjective clause the object of the verb 'give,' treating it as an adjective used substantively (§ 98).

Care must be taken not to confound adjective clauses like the above with substantive clauses beginning with the *interrogative what*, as "*Tell me what he said*" (§ 410). (Compare § 548.)

560. "*I return to view where once the cottage stood.*"

Here 'where once the cottage stood' is an adjective clause qualifying the noun *place* understood, which forms the object of *view.*

561. "*I have not from your eyes that show* 4) *of love as I was wont to have.*"
(4)

Subject,	'I.'
Predicate,	'have.'
Object,	'show.'
Attributive adjuncts of predicate,	1. 'that.' 2. 'of love.' 3. (*Adj. clause*) 'As I was wont to have.' (4).

Analysis of (4).

Subject,	'I.'
Predicate,	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'was.' *Subjective complement,* 'wont to have.'
Object,	(*Relative pronoun,* see § 165) 'as.'

562. "*His conduct is not such as I admire.*

Here *as I admire* must be taken as an adjective clause co-ordinate with *such*, and forming an attributive adjunct to the noun 'conduct' understood, which is the complement of the predicate 'is.' *As* * is a relative pronoun (§ 165), and is the object of *admire* (§ 411).

The Adjective Clause is sometimes weakened to an Adjective Phrase by the use of an infinitive mood instead of a finite verb, as "There is no good *for which to strive.*"

* That *as* is only the strengthened form of *so* is shown by the use of *swa*, *swo*, or *so* in the older writers, as "Graunt me soche beryng *so* fallith to a king" (*Alis*, 4624); "gyld swilc neát swá þæron befealle" (*Legg. Aelf.* B. 22).

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

563. An **Adverbial Clause** is always in the **Adverbial Relation** to a **verb, adjective,** or **adverb** in the sentence of which it forms a part.

When such a clause begins with a *subordinative conjunction*, the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. When the clause begins with a *connective adverb*, that adverb must have its own relation indicated in the analysis.*

564. "*When, in Salamanca's cave,*
(2) .....
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
.....
The bells would ring 2) *in Notre Dame.*"

Subject (with attributive adjunct), 'the bells.'
Predicate, 'would ring.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate. { 1. (*Adverbial clause*) 'when in Salamanca's—— wave' (2). 2. 'in Notre Dame.

Analysis of (2).

Subject (infinitive phrase), 'to wave his magic wand.'
Predicate, 'listed,' *i.e.*, 'pleased.'
Object, 'him.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'When.' 2. 'in Salamanca's cave.'

565. "*He ran so fast* 3) *that I could not overtake him.*"
(3) .....

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'ran.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 'fast,' *qualified by*—1. 'so.' 2. 'that I could not overtake him' (3).

Analysis of (3).
(*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'could.' *Complement*, 'overtake.'
Object, 'him.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'

[It seems natural, at first sight, to regard *that* in this sentence as the equivalent of the Latin connective adverb *ut*. But the construction in reality sprang out of the use of a substantive clause used in apposition to a demonstrative pronoun ('to *that* [degree]'), which was afterwards replaced by the adverb *so*. The word 'that' therefore is a mere

* *After, before, since, ere, till, while, for,* &c., are conjunctions (§ 290) when they are not followed by the conjunction 'that.' They introduce *adverbial clauses*, but have not themselves any adverbial force.

conjunction, and the clause is co-ordinate with 'so,' and consequently *adverbial* in force.

566. "*He spoke* 4) *loud that I might hear him.*"

(4).....

Here also 'that' is a mere conjunction, and the clause, 'that I might hear him,' which was once a substantive clause (as in the last instance), has become adverbial, modifying 'spoke.'

567. "*Whatever the consequence may be, I shall speak* 5) *the truth.*" (5).....

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'shall speak.'
Object (with adjunct), 'the truth.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, { *Adverbial clause of concession*, 'whatever the consequence may be' (5).

Analysis of (5).

Subject (with attributive adjunct), 'the consequence.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'may be.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'whatever.' (See § 512.)

568. "*He is not so wise as he is witty.*"

(1).....

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'wise.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'
Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement, { 1. 'so.'
{ 2. 'as he is witty' (1).

Analysis of (1).

(*Adverbial clause qualifying* 'wise,' *and co-ordinate with* 'so.')
Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'witty.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

569. "*He is as worthy a man as ever lived.*"

Here 'as' and 'as ever lived' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'worthy.' The 'as' of the adverbial clause is here a relative pronoun (§ 165), forming the subject of 'lived,' and representing in a compendious form "a man of which degree of worthiness."

570. "*Beware how you meddle with these matters.*"

Subject (understood), 'you.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'be.'
{ *Complement of predicate*, 'ware.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, { (*Substantive clause used adverbially*, § 549), 'how you meddle with these matters' (A).

Analysis of (A).

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'meddle.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'how,
{ 2. 'with these matters.'

571. "*Thieves are not judged, but they are by to hear.*"

When 'but' is not followed by the conjunction 'that,' it is better to regard it as being itself a conjunction (see § 297), so that the clause 'but (= unless) they are by to hear' is an adverbial clause, modifying the predicate 'are judged.'

Deal in a similar way with such sentences as "It shall go hard, *but I will better the instruction*"; "There's ne'er a villain living in all Denmark, *but he's an arrant knave*"; "There is no one *but* [he] *believes the story*," &c. (See these sentences discussed in the note p. 124.)

572. Subordinate Clauses contained within clauses which are themselves subordinate.

The lines drawn under the clauses show at a glance the containing and contained clauses, and indicate to what class they belong.

573. "*He inferred* 1) *from this that the opinion of the judge was* 2) *that the prisoner was guilty.*"

(1)
2)

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'inferred.'
Object, *Substantive clause*, 'That the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'from this' (§ 370, 2).

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'opinion.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'the.' 2. 'of the judge.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' *Complement* (*substantive clause*), 'that the prisoner was guilty' (2).

Analysis of (2).

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the prisoner.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' *Complement*, 'guilty.'

574. "*Tell* 1) *me who you think* 2) *that man is.*"

(1)
(2)

Here the whole clause, 'who you think that man is,' is a substantive clause (beginning with an interrogative word), the object of 'tell.' Its construction is precisely parallel to that of the clause 'you think [that] that man is he'; it contains a secondary substantive clause, the object of 'think,' namely, 'who that man is.' (Compare § 512.)

575. "*If it were* 3) *done when 'tis done, then it* (1 *were* 2) *well it were done quickly.*"

(2) (3) (1)

Provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subject (*substantive clause*), '[that] it were done quickly' (1).
Predicate, 'were.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,
1. 'well.'
2. 'then.'
3. (*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with* 'then') 'if it were done when 'tis done' (2).

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, 'were done' (*passive verb*).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'quickly.'

Analysis of (2).

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'were.' *Complement,* 'done' (i.e., *finished and done with*).
Adverbial adjunct of complement (adverbial clause), 'when 'tis done' (3).

Analysis of (3).

Subject, 'it.'
Predicate, 'is done' (*simple passive*).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'when.'

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

576. Ordinary sentences of this kind require no special discussion. All that has to be done is to analyse each of the co-ordinate clauses separately, omitting the conjunctions by which they are connected, but inserting *not* if the conjunctions are *neither—nor.*

577. There is, however, one class of co-ordinate clauses which require care, namely, those in which the relative pronoun has a *continuative* force. (See § 412.)

578. "*At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin*
To meete me wand'ring; who perforce me led
With him away but never yet could win."

This sentence must first be split up into the three co-ordinate sentences.
(A). "At last it chaunced this proud Sarazin to meete me wand'ring."
(B). "Who perforce me led with him away."
(C). "[Who] never yet could win [me].

Analysis of (A).

Provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subject (*infinitive phrase*), 'this proud Sarazin* to meete me wand'ring.'
Predicate, 'chaunced.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'at last.'

* It is also possible to take 'this proud Sarazin' as an indirect object of 'chaunced.' Compare "me chaunced of a knight encountered be" (*Spenser*).

The analysis of (B) and (C) presents no difficulty. They are *principal* clauses co-ordinate with (A); *who* being *continuative* in its force.

578. "*This is now our doom, which if we can sustain and bear, our supreme foe in time may much remit his anger.*"

First split this into the following:—

(A). "This is now our doom,"

(B). "Which if we can sustain and bear, our supreme foe in time may much remit (1) his anger."

(1).....

Analysis of (B).

Subject (with adjunct),	'our supreme foe.'
Predicate,	{ *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'may.' *Infinitive complement,* 'remit.'
Object (with adjunct),	'his anger.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,	{ 1. (*Adverbial clause*) 'which ——— and bear' (1). 2. 'in time.' 3. 'much.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject,	'we.'
Predicate,	{ *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'can.' *Infinitive complement,* 'sustain and bear.'
Object,	'which.'

Subordinate Compound Clauses.

580. These present no difficulty when they are expressed at full length. Thus: "He told me that the dyke had burst and that the river was flooding the country." Here we simply have a compound object (§ 597). In analysis we should put after the predicate.

Object (compound),	{ 1. 'That the dyke had burst.' 2. 'That the river was flooding the country.'

581. But the greater number of sentences with compound subordinate clauses belong to the class of contracted sentences.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

582. Before a contracted sentence (§ 449) is analysed, the parts omitted must be expressed at full length.

583. "*We perceive that these things not only did not happen, but could not have happened.*" In full—

[(A) 'We perceive that these things not only did not happen.'

[(B) 'We perceive that these things could not have happened.'

584. "*Many instances were related of wise forethought, or firm action, or acute reply on his part, both in the senate and in the forum.*" In full—

[(A 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the senate.']
[(B) 'Many instances were related of wise forethought on his part in the forum.']
[(C) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the senate.']
[(D) 'Many instances were related of firm action on his part in the forum.']
[(E) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the senate.']
[(F) 'Many instances were related of acute reply on his part in the forum.']

585. "*Every assertion is either true or false, either wholly or in part.*" In full—

[(A) 'Every assertion is true wholly.']
[(B) 'Every assertion is true in part.']
[(C) 'Every assertion is false wholly.']
[(D) 'Every assertion is false in part.']

586. When co-ordinate sentences or clauses are connected by *neither*, *nor*, the simple negative *not* may be substituted for each conjunction in the analysis, the *conjunctive* portion of the words being omitted.

"*The man who neither reverences nobleness nor loves goodness is hateful.*" In full—

[(A) 'The man who reverences not nobleness is hateful.']
[(B) 'The man who loves not goodness is hateful.']

587. "*Whether he succeed or fail, it will not matter to me.*" In full—

[(A) 'If he succeed, it will not matter to me.']
[(B) 'If he fail, it will not matter to me.']

588. "*Tell me whether this is true or not.*" In full–

[(A) 'Tell me whether this is true.']
[(B) 'Tell me whether this is not true.']

Here *whether* is interrogative, introducing a substantive clause, the object of 'tell.'

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.

589. An elliptical sentence is one in which something is omitted which is essential to the complete construction of the sentence, but which is readily supplied in thought, without being expressed in words.

In elliptical sentences that which is omitted is not common to two or more clauses.

Relative pronouns and relative adverbs are sometimes omitted.

590. "He left the day *I arrived.*"

In full—"He left the day *that* (or *on which*) I arrived." In this sentence *the day* is in the adverbial relation to *left; that* (or *on which*) is in the adverbial relation to *arrived;* and the dependent clause *that I arrived* is an adjective clause qualifying *day.*

591. The commonest (and the most troublesome) elliptical sentences are those which begin with *as* and *than.* In analysing them care must be taken to ascertain *what the predicate really is* in the dependent clause, and what word the adverb *as* qualifies.

592. "He is as tall as I am."* In full—"He is as tall as I am *tall.*"

If we ask what the predicate in the dependent clause is (or what is predicated of *me*), the answer is "*being tall;*" and moreover not *being tall* simply, but *being tall in a certain degree*, which degree is denoted by the relative adverb *as*, which qualifies *tail* (understood) in the adverbial clause, just as the demonstrative adverb *as* qualifies *tall* in the main clause.

The adverbial clause beginning with *as* is always co-ordinate with the preceding demonstrative *as* or *so*, and modifies (adverbially) the same word.

Subject, 'He.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
Subjective complement, 'tall.'

Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement of predicate, { 1. 'as.'
2. 'as I am [tall]' (A).

Analysis of (A).

Subject, 'I.'

Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'am.
Complement of predicate, 'tall.

Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

593. We must deal in a similar manner with such sentences as :—

"He has not written so much 1) as I have [written much]."
(1) .....

"He has lived as many 2) years as you have lived [many] months."
(2) .....

"He does not write so well 3) as you [write well]."
(3) .....

"I would as soon 4) die as [I would soon] suffer that."
(4) .....

* It may be taken as a general rule that after *as* we must supply a word of the same kind of meaning as the word qualified by the simple or demonstrative adverb in the main clause.

"He looks 5) as [he would] look 6) if he knew me."
(5) (6)

"I cannot give you so much 7) as five pounds [are much]."
(7)

"He cannot [do] so much 8) as [to] read [js much]."
(8)

"I saw John as well as [I saw] Thomas [well]."
"That is as much as [it would be much] to say."

594. When '**as**' answers to '**such**' (as in 'We are *such* stuff *as* dreams are made of') it is not an adverb, but the relative pronoun (§ 165). But in such a sentence as :

"I am not such a fool as [I should be a fool] to believe that," the clause beginning with 'as' is an adverbial clause, modifying *such*.

595. "*He is taller* 1) *than I am.*" In full—"*He is taller than I am tall.*"
(1)

Here the adverbial clause modifies the predicate in the main sentence. *Than* has so completely lost its original sense of '*when*,' that it may now be treated as a mere conjunction. The clause beginning with *than* is always an adverbial adjunct of the word in the comparative degree in the main clause.

596. Deal in a similar manner with such sentences as the following :—
"He is more 1) industrious than clever." In full—"He is more industrious than he is clever."
(1)

"He has written more 2) letters than you [have written many letters]."
(2)

"He is richer 3) than you suppose 4) [that he is rich]."
(3) (4)

"Our habits are costlier than Lucullus wore [costly habits]."

That is, "taking Lucullus's wearing of costly habits as a standard of comparison, our habits are costlier."

"I had rather* die than [I would] suffer that."†

597. "*I agree with you in so far as you adopt his opinion.*"
The sense of this is, '*In how far* you adopt his opinion, *in so far* I agree with you.' 'As' (strictly speaking) qualifies *far* understood, but its reference to the manner or circumstances of an action may

* See § 529.
† It is unnecessary (though not inaccurate) to supply the positive '*soon*' in the adverbial clause.

be interpreted in such a general sense, that 'as' may be taken as representing 'as far.' This will render it unnecessary actually to supply the word 'far.' Take 'in so far' and 'as you adopt his opinion' as co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'agree.' Deal similarly with the sentence 'He knows that inasmuch as I have told him.' Take 'inasmuch' and 'as I have told him' as co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'knows.'

598. "*I cannot stay longer than a month* [*is long*]."

That is, 'taking the *length of a month* as the standard of comparison, I cannot stay longer.' Deal in a similar way with "I cannot give you more than five pounds [are much]"; "More than twenty men [are many] were killed."

599. "*He would have perished but* [*it had been*] *for me.*"

Here *but* has the sense of 'unless' (§ 293).

"*As* [*the matter stands*] *for me, I care nothing about that.*"

It is also possible to treat this '*as*' as a relative pronoun, the subject of some verb understood, so that the phrase answers to the Latin *quod ad me attinet.*

600. Some ellipses are produced by stopping short in the course of a sentence, as "To tell you the truth, [I must say] I don't know what to do." Sometimes the broken sentence must be left incomplete, as "Were he my brother, nay, my kingdom's heir," &c. = 'Were he my brother—I will not (nay) say that,' I will say "Were he my kingdom's heir," &c.

PUNCTUATION.

601. In speaking, the words of a sentence, especially if it be a complex one, are not uttered consecutively without any break. Certain pauses are made to mark more clearly the way in which the words of the sentence are grouped together.

In writing, these pauses are represented by marks called *stops or points. Punctuation* (derived from the Latin *punctum*, a *point*) means "the right mode of putting in points or stops."

The stops made use of are—1. The Comma (,). 2. The Semicolon (;). 3. The Colon (:). 4. The Full Stop or Period (.).*

As it is impossible to lay down perfectly exact rules for the introduction of pauses in speaking, so it will be found that in many cases the best writers are not agreed as to the use of stops in writing. All that can be done is to lay down the most general principles.

602. The Full Stop is used at the end of a complete and independent sentence, but not at the end of a sentence which is followed by another *collateral* sentence (§ 445).

* These words (properly speaking) are names not of the *stops*, but of the portions of sentences which they mark off. *Comma* means a *clause*; *Colon*, a *limb* or *member* of a sentence; *Semicolon*, a half *Colon*; *Period*, a complete sentence.

603. The Colon and Semicolon are only placed between sentences which are grammatically complete, not between the various portions of either simple or complex sentences (§ 400). The colon is placed between sentences which are grammatically independent, but sufficiently connected in sense to make it undesirable that there should be a complete break between them. Thus: "The Chief must be Colonel: his uncle or his brother must be Major: the tacksmen must be the Captains" (*Macaulay*). "Nothing else could have united her people: nothing else could have endangered or interrupted our commerce" (*Landor*). But in similar cases many writers only use the semicolon; no exact rule can be given.

A colon (with or without a dash after it) is often put before a quotation which is not immediately dependent on a verb; as: 'On his tombstone was this inscription:—"Here lies an honest man."'

604. The semicolon is commonly placed between the co-ordinate members of a compound sentence, when they are connected by *and*, *but*, or *nor*; as: "Time would thus be gained; and the royalists might be able to execute their old project" (*Macaulay*). It is also inserted when three or more co-ordinate sentences are united *collaterally* (§ 445), with a conjunction before the last; as: "A battering-ram was invented, of light construction and powerful effect; it was transported and worked by the hands of forty soldiers; and as the stones were loosened by its repeated strokes, they were torn with long iron hooks from the walls" (*Gibbon*). When the co-ordinate sentences are short and closely connected in meaning, commas are placed between them, or such parts of them as remain after contraction (§ 449), as: 'I ran after him, but could not catch him.' Sometimes even commas are unnecessary, as: "He reads and writes incessantly." "He learns neither Latin nor Greek." "He struck and killed his brother." "Either you or I must leave the room."

605. In a simple or complex sentence commas should be inserted whenever, in reading or speaking, short pauses would be made to show more clearly the way in which the words are grouped together. It is impossible to lay down hard and fast rules. When no pause is required in reading, no comma is necessary in writing. The following directions may be of service:—

In simple sentences the comma is inserted—

1. Before the main verb, when the subject is accompanied by an attributive adjunct which, with its adjuncts, forms a combination of words of considerable length. As, "The injustice *of the sentence pronounced upon this wise and virtuous man*, is evident." But if the adjunct is expressed briefly, the comma is not used; as, "The injustice *of the sentence* is evident."
2. Before and after any participle (not used as a mere qualitative adjective) or participial phrase; as, "The man, having slipped, fell over the cliff." "The general, having rallied his soldiers, led them forwards." "Undaunted, he still struggled

on." "All night the dreadless angel, unpursued, through heaven's wide champaign winged his glorious way."

3. Before and after any attributive adjunct to the subject which consists of an adjective or noun in apposition, when these are accompanied by other words standing to them in the attributive, objective, or adverbial relation. *E.g.*, "Bacon, the illustrious author of the 'Novum Organum,' declared," &c. "The soldier, afraid of the consequences of his insubordination, deserted."

4. Before or after a phrase or quotation which is either the subject or the object of a verb. Thus: "Nelson's watchword was, 'England expects every man to do his duty.'" "He said to His disciples, 'Watch and pray.'" (See § 603.)

5. When several substantives, enumerated successively without having the conjunction *and* placed between them, have the same relation to some other word in the sentence, forming either the compound subject or the compound object of a verb, or coming after a preposition, they must be separated by commas. Thus: "John, William, James and Henry took a walk together." "He lost lands, money, reputation and friends." Adjectives and adverbs co-ordinately related to the same noun, or to the same verb or adjective, and not connected by *and*, should be separated by commas; as, "He was a wealthy, prudent, active and philanthropic citizen." "He wrote his exercise neatly, quickly and correctly."

6. A comma is inserted after an adverbial phrase consisting of a noun (with its adjuncts) used absolutely, or an infinitive mood (preceded by *to*) implying purpose, when it precedes the verb or its subject. As, "To conclude, I will only say," &c. "The man being dead, his heirs took possession of his estate."

7. Other complex adverbial phrases also are frequently followed by commas when they precede the subject of the sentence; as, "By studying diligently for five hours a day, he mastered the language in six months." Such phrases should be both preceded and followed by commas when they come between the subject and the verb, and modify not the verb simply, but the entire assertion; as, "The foolish man, in defiance of all advice, persisted in his project." "This undertaking, therefore, was abandoned." But a single adverb or a short adverbial phrase which simply modifies the verb need not be thus marked off; as, "The man in vain protested his innocence." *However*, when it is the representative of an elliptical clause, must be preceded and followed by commas; as, "The man, however, escaped."

8. Nouns used in the vocative (or nominative of appellation) are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence; as, "John, shut the door," "I said, Sir, that I had not done that."

606. In complex sentences the following rules may be observed:—

1. A substantive clause used as the subject of a verb should be followed by a comma. Thus: "That the accused is innocent of the crime imputed to him, admits of demonstration." "How we are ever to get there, is the question."

If such a clause *follow* the verb, a comma does not usually precede the substantive clause. As, "It is of great importance that this should be rightly understood."

A substantive clause which is the object of a verb is not generally preceded by a comma. Thus: "He acknowledged that he had done this." "Tell me how you are."

2. An adjective clause is not separated by a comma from the noun which it qualifies when it is an essential part of the designation of the thing signified; that is, when the thing or person signified is not sufficiently indicated by the antecedent noun. Thus: "The man who told me this stands here." "I do not see the objects that you are pointing out."

But if the designation of the person or thing meant is complete without the relative sentence, so that the latter only extends and defines that designation, being *continuative*, and not *restrictive* (§ 412), then a comma must be introduced. Thus: "We are studying the reign of William Rufus, who succeeded his father A.D. 1087. "I will report this to my father, who is waiting to hear the news."

Adverbial clauses which precede the verb that they modify should be marked off by commas. Thus: "When you have finished your work, tell me." "Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish." But an adverbial clause need not be preceded by a comma when it comes *after* the verb that it modifies; as, "I will wait till I hear from you"; "I did not see him when he called"; "He ran away as soon as I saw him."

607. Besides the stops, some other signs are employed in writing.

608. A note of interrogation (?) must be placed at the end of all direct questions, but not after indirect questions. Thus: "Have you written your letter?" But: "He asked me whether I had written my letter."

609. The note of admiration or exclamation (!) is placed after interjections, exclamations, and after nouns and pronouns used in addresses, when particular stress is to be laid upon them. This mark is also frequently placed at the end of a sentence which contains an invocation.

610. The parenthesis ( ) is used to enclose a clause or part of a clause, which does not enter into the construction of the main sentence, but is merely introduced *by the way*. Words enclosed within a parenthesis do not require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by any other stop.

611. Double or single inverted commas '—' or "—", are used to mark quotations.

APPENDIX.

WORDS BELONGING TO THE TEUTONIC STOCK OF ENGLISH.

[*Nothing more is attempted here than a brief classification, with a few examples, not too numerous to be retained in the memory.*]

A. ANGLO-SAXON CONSTITUENTS OF MODERN ENGLISH.

1. Words constituting the grammatical framework of the language Most of these have been already discussed.

1. Pronouns (§§ 137, &c.).
2. Numerals (§§ 100, &c.).
3. Prepositions (§ 281).
4. Conjunctions (§§ 287, &c.).
5. Adjectives of irregular comparison (§ 115).
6. Auxiliary Verbs (§§ 231—256).
7. All verbs of the strong conjugation (§ 225), together with a large number of verbs of the weak conjugation (particularly those given in § 226).

2. The greater part of the words formed by Teutonic prefixes and suffixes (§§ 311—325).

3. Most words denoting common natural objects and phenomena :—

ác ; oak, acorn (*i.e.* acorn)
æppel ; apple
æsc ; ash
bár ; boar
beofer ; beaver
beo, bio ; bee
birce ; birch
bitel ; beetle
blæd (*branch*) ; blade
blóstma ; blossom
bóc ; beech
brid (*the young of an animal*) ; bird
bróc ; brook
clæg ; clay
[illegible] (*mua*) ; clammy
coc ; cock
comb (*valley*) ; in names, as Alcomb, Compton
crán ; crane
cú ; cow
dæg ; day
denu (*valley*) ; den (*in names, as Tenterden*)
deór (*animal*) ; deer
eá (*water*) ; island (*i.e.* eáland)
efen ; evening
eorðe ; earth
fæðer ; feather
fisc ; fish
flód ; flood
frosc ; frog
fugel (*bird*) ; fowl
gós ; goose
hærfest ; harvest
hæð ; heath
hafoc ; hawk
hagol ; hail
hors ; horse
hund ; hound
lencten (*the spring*) ; Lent
leoht ; light
móna ; moon
regen ; rain
sæ ; sea
snaw ; snow
spearwa ; sparrow
stán ; stone
steorra ; star
sumer ; summer
sunne (*fem.*) ; sun
treow ; tree
wæter ; water
wind ; winter
worold ; world
þunor ; thunder

4. Words relating to the house and farm.

æcer ; acre
aeg (*pl.* aegru) ; egg, eyry
æsce ; ashes
æmyrie ; embers
bacan ; to bake
bæð ; bath
bæst (*inner bark*) ; bast-mat
bere ; barley
bere-ern (ern = *place*) ; barn
besem ; besom
bin (*manger*) ; corn-bin
bolla ; bowl
bolster ; bolster
bórd ; board
bræc ; breeches
breád ; bread
búan (*to till*) ; boor
búc ; buck-et
bula ; bull
byt (*cask*) ; butt
camb ; comb
ceaf ; chaff
cealf ; calf
cese, cyse ; cheese
cetel ; kettle
clucge (*bell*) ; clock
cnedan ; to knead
cóc, cuc ; cook
cycene ; kitchen
cod (*bag*) ; peascod
cót, cýte ; cot, cottage
cradol ; cradle
craet ; cart
cróc (*pot*) ; crock-ery
cú ; cow
cwearn (*mill*) ; quern
delfan (*dig*) ; to delve
díc ; dike, ditch
ealo ; ale
efese (*fem. sing.*) ; eaves
ele ; oil
erian (*to plough*) ; to ear
fearh (*little pig*) ; farrow
feld ; field
feorme (*sustenance*) ; farm
floc ; flock
fóda ; food
furh ; furrow
fýr ; fire
gád ; goad
gærs ; grass
gát ; goat
geard (*hedge*) ; yard, garden
geat ; gate
grút (*meal*) ; groats, grouts
hærfest ; harvest
heorð ; hearth
hlæfdige ; lady
hláford ; lord
hláf ; loaf
hóf (*house*) ; hov
hróf ; roof
hús ; house
hwæte ; wheat
hweól ; wheel
lám (*mud*) ; loam
mæd ; mead-ow
meolc ; milk
ófen ; oven
ortgeard (*yard for worts or vegetables*) ; orchard
oxa ; ox
ricg ; rick
sceáp ; sheep
wægen ; wagon, wain
þæc ; thatch
þerscan ; to thresh

5. Words relating to family and kindred.

bróðor ; brother
brýd ; bride
cild (*pl.* cildra) ; child
cnápa, cnáfa (*boy*) ; knave
cyn ; kin
dóhtor ; daughter
fæder ; father
húsbúnda (*householder*) ; husband
módor ; mother
nefa ; nephew
sunu ; son
sweóstor ; sister
widuwa ; widower
widuwe ; widow
wíf (*woman*) ; wife

6. Words relating to the parts of the body and natural functions.

ancleow ; ankle
bælg (*bag*) ; belly, bulge, bellows
bán ; bone
blód ; blood
bodig (*stature*) ; body
bósm (*fold*) ; bosom
bræð ; breath
breost ; breast
ceáce ; cheek
ceówan ; to chew
cin ; chin
cneow ; knee
eáge ; eye
eár ; ear
earm ; arm
elboga ; elbow
finger ; finger
flæsc ; flesh
fót ; foot
fýst ; fist
ge-siht ; sight
góma ; gum
hær ; hair
hand ; hand
heáfod ; head
heals (*neck*) ; halter
hél ; heel
heorte ; heart
hlýst (*the sense of hearing*) ; listen
hoh (*heel*) ; hough
hricg (*back*) ; ridge
hrif (*bowels*) ; midriff
lim ; limb
lippe ; lip

maga (*stomach*) ; maw
mearg ; marrow
múð ; mouth
nægl ; nail
nasu ; nose
sculder ; shoulder
seón ; to see
tóð ; tooth
tunge ; tongue
þeoh ; thigh, thews
þróte ; throat

7. Words relating to handicrafts, trade, &c.

adesa ; adze
anfilt ; anvil
angel (*hook*) ; to angle
ár ; oar
aruwe ; arrow
bat ; boat
bil ; bill
bræs ; brass
bycgan ; to buy
bỳtel ; beetle
ceáp (*bargain, sale*) ; cheap, chaffer, chapman
ceol (*small ship*) ; keel
cláð ; cloth
craeft (*strength*) ; craft
hamor ; hammer
mangian (*to traffic*) ; monger

8. Words denoting common attributive ideas.

bald ; bold
bittor ; bitter
blæc ; black
blác (*pale*) ; bleach
brád ; broad
brún ; brown
cealo (*bald*) ; callow
ceald ; cold
cól ; cool
dearc ; dark
deóp ; deep
deóre ; dear
eald ; old
efen ; even
fægr ; fair
fætt ; fat
full ; full
fúl ; foul
geolo ; yellow
græg ; grey
gréne ; green
heáh ; high
neard ; hard
hefig ; heavy
hwíte ; white
rúde (*red*) ; ruddy, ruddle, ruddock (*the robin-red-breast*)

9. Miscellaneous words.

ac, eac (*also*) ; eke
acsian ; to ask
ádl (*pain, sickness*) ; addle
æfre ; ever
æmta (*leisure*) ; æmtig ; empty
æþel (*noble*) ; Atheling, Ethelred
áð ; oath
beor ; beer
bana (*killer*) ; bane, rats-bane
bealo (*woe*) ; bale-ful
beám (*tree*) ; beam
béde (*prayer*) ; bedesman
beorht ; bright
beódan ; to bid
beran ; to bear
berstan ; to burst
bítan ; to bite
bỳsig, busy ; bỳsgu, business
bláwan ; to blow
bletsian (*from* blót, *sacrifice*) ; to bless
bliðe ; blithe
bóc ; book
borgian (*from* borg-*pledge*) ; to borrow
brecan ; to break
brycg ; bridge, brig
brydel ; bridle
bryne (*flame*) ; brimstone
brytan (*to break*) ; brittle
búgan ; to bow
búr (*cottage*) ; bower
burh (*fort*) ; borough
byrig (*tomb*) ; burg
byrðen ; burthen
carl (*male*) ; Charles
cearu ; care
ceorfan (*to cut*) ; carve
ceorl ; churl
ceósan ; to choose
clǽnan ; to clean
cleófan ; to cleave
clipian (*to call*) ; y-clept
cnáwan ; to know
cniht (*youth, attendant*) ; knight
cnucian ; to knock
cos, cyss ; kiss
crafian ; to crave
cráwan ; to crow
creópan ; to creep
cric ; crutch
cringan (*to be weak, to die*), cringe, crank, cranky
cwic (*alive*) ; quick
cuman ; to come
quellan ; quell, kill
cwén (*female*) ; queen, quean
cweðan (*to say*) ; quoth
cyning ; king
dǽl (*part*) ; deal, dole : ór-dǽl (ór = *beginning*). *Germ.* Urtheil ; ordeal
déman (*to judge*) ; dóm ; deem, doom
dol (*foolish*) ; dolt

dreórig (*bloody, sad*); dreary
dreógan (*to endure*); drudge
drifan; to drive
drencan (*to make to drink*); to drench
drincan; to drink
drigan (*to dry*); drug, drought
dwínan (*to pine*); dwindle
dyne (*thunder*); din
dýsig (*foolish*); dizzy
dynt (*a sounding blow*); dint
eác (*also*); eke
ealdor; elder, alderman
ecg; edge
eorl (*man of valour*); earl
eornost; earnest
etan; to eat
faegen (*glad*); fain
faran (*to go*); fare, ford
feallan; to fall
fealo (*yellow*); fallow (ground), fallow-deer
feoh (*cattle, money*); fee
feohtan; to fight
feor; far
fiðele; fiddle
fleógan; to fly
fleótan; to float
folc; folk
forhtian; to frighten
fóstor (*food*); foster
freó (*lordly*); free
freón (*to love*); friend
fretan (*to gnaw*); to fret
gaderian; to gather
gál (*merry*), geóla (*merry-making*); Yule
galan (*to sing*); nightingale
gamen (*pleasure*); game
gán, gangan (*to go*); go, gang, gangway
gár (*dart*); to gore
gást; ghost, gas
geáp (*wide*); gape, gap
geár; year
gearo (*ready*); yare
geldan (*to pay*), gilt (*fine*); guilt, yield
geleáfa; belief
geong; young
geogoð; youth
geond; yonder
georn (*desirous*), geornian; to yearn
geréfa (*one who makes to obey*); reeve, sheriff
gifan; to give
glitian; to glitter
gnagan; to gnaw
gód; good
grápian (*to lay hold of*); grab, grapple
grétan; to greet
guma (*man*); bridegroom
habban (*to hold*); have, haft
hád (*state or condition*); God*head*, child-*hood*, &c.
hælan; to heal (from hál = whole)
hálig; holy
hám; home, Cobham &c.
hás; hoarse
hát; hot
healdan; to hold
hélan (*to hide*); hell
here (*army*); harbour (*i.e. refuge for an army, from* beorga), herring (the *army-* or *shoal-*fish)
hingrian; to hunger
híw (*form, fashion*); hue
hladan (*to pump up*); ladle
hloð (*band of robbers, booty*); loot
hóc; hook
hræð (*swift*); ready, rash
hræðe (*quickly, soon*); rathe, rather
hreósan; to rush
hreówan (*repent*); to rue
hriddel (*sieve*); to riddle (with holes)
hwæt (*sharp*); to whet
hwytel (*a sharp tool*); whittle
hweorfan (*to turn*); warp
hýd (*covering, skin*); hide
hýdan (*to cover*); to hide
hýð (*shore, port*); Green*hithe*, &c.
hýran; to hear
lár (*doctrine*); lore
læran (*teach*); learn (*still vulgarly used in the sense of teaching*)
leás (*false*); leasing
leód (*people*); lewd (*belonging to the common people*)
leof (*dear*), leófan; lief, to love
líc (*corpse*); lich-gate
lín (*flax*); linen, linnet (*the flax-finch*)
lystan (*to please*); 'him listed,' listless
mægen (*strength*); main
mágan (*be able*); may
maðe (*worm*); moth
max, masc (*noose*); mesh
mersc; marsh
mete; meet
metsian (*to feed*); mess, messmate
mód (*mind*); mood
mór; moor
morð; murther
morgen; morn, morrow
mót; shire-moot (métan, mýtan = *to meet*)
nacod; naked
næddre; adder (*an adder = a nadder*)
næs; naze, -ness (in Furness, &c.)
neb (*beak*); nib
neód; need
niht; night
niðer (*down*); nether
ost; east
pic, pitch
pinewincle, periwinkle
pípe; pipe
rædan (*interpret*); to read
ráp; rope

reác (*smoke*); reek
reáfian (*rob*); be-reave, reiver
réc (*care*); reckless
ríce (*dominion*); bishop-ric
ród (*cross*); rood
sǽl (*good luck*); sǽlig (*lucky*); seely (*old Engl.*); silly (i.e., *blessed*)
sár; sore, sorry, sorrow
scacan; to shake
scafan (*scrape*); to shave
sceaft (*a scraped pole*); shaft
sceapan (*to form, create*); shape (*from this comes the suffix* scipe *or* scype = -ship)
sceacga (*a bush or bunch*); shaggy
scéran; to shear, to share, short, shire
sceáðan (*to injure*); scatheless
sceáwian (*to look*); show
sceófan; shove, shuffle, scuffle
scínan; to shine
scíp; ship, skipper
scír (*pure, clear*); sheer
scrincan; to shrink
scrúd (*garment*); shroud
sealt; salt
secgan; to say
segel; sail
sencan; to sink
seóc; sick
seolfer; silver
slǽp; sleep
slecg; sledge-hammer
slop (*frock*); slop-shop
smeoru (*grease*); smear
snican (*creep*); sneak
sóð (*truth*); sooth-sayer
spéd (*prosperity*); speed
spell (*tale*); gospel (*i.e.*, good-spell
sprécan; to speak
stæf; staff
stearc (*strong*); stark, starch
stelan; to steal
stician; to stick, stitch
stígan (*to mount*); stirrup (i.e., stíg-ráp = *mounting rope*)
stów (*place*); to stow away, names in—stow
sweart (*black*); swarthy
swelgan; to swallow
sweltan (*to die*); swelter
swerian; to swear, answer (and = *against*)
swífan (*to move quickly*); swift
syllan (*to give*); sell
tǽcan; to teach
tǽsan (*to pluck*); tease
tendan, tyndan (*to kindle*); tinder
þeóf; thief
þyrel (*hole*); drill, nostril (i.e. *nose-hole*)
þweorh (*oblique*); athwart
þyrr (*dry*); thirst
þringan (*to press*); throng
þrǽl; thrall
tíd (*time*); tide
treówan (*to trust*); to trow
treówð; truth, trust
tún (*enclosed ground*); town
wacan, wacian; to wake, watch
wǽd (*garment*); widow's weeds
wana (*lack*); want
wanian; to wane
wealcan (*to roll, turn*); walk
weald (*forest*); Weald, Wold
wealdan (*to rule*); wield, Bretwalda (*governor of the Britons*)
wealh (*foreign*); Welsh, walnut
wed (*a pledge*); to wed
wén (*hope*), wénan (*to expect*); ween, over-weening
weorc; work
weorpan (*to throw*); mouldwarp (*i.e., mould-thrower*)
weorð; worth
wíc (*dwelling*); Alnwick, Greenwich
wilcuma (*one who comes when we wish*); welcome
wolcen (*cloud*); welkin
wóp (*weeping*); whoop
wræstan (*to twist*); wrest, wrestle
wrégan (*to accuse*); bewray
wríðian; to wreathe, writhe. *Derivative*, wrist
wyn (joy); wínsome
wyrd (*fate*); weird
wyrhta (*workman*); wright
yfel (*bad*); evil, ill
yrnan; to run

Besides words like those in the preceding list, which involve some interesting variation in form or meaning, there are very many which have kept their place in our language without material variation either in form or in meaning. These are generally easy to recognize. No one with any knowledge of Latin would suppose for a moment that such words as *bind, climb, corn, crop, deaf, dim, east, end, fall, find, full, grim, grind, heap, help, horse, hunt, land, leaf, melt, nest, north, south, oft, ram, sand, send, sing, sit, spill, spring, step, sting, stream, swing, timber, turf, web, word, thing, thorn*, were of Latin or Greek origin.

On comparing the earlier forms of English words with those now current, the following changes (among others) present themselves:—

1. The vowel **y** of A.S. and early English gives place to **i**, as dynt *dint*; hlystan *listen*; þyrstan *thirst*; fyr *fire*; bryd *bride*.

2. A.S. **æ** appears as **ea** (rædan *read*); as **i** (rædel *riddle*); as **e** (wære *were*); or as **ee** and **ea** (slæpan *sleep*; spæc *speech*; hælan *heal*).

3. Broken vowel sounds in A.S. tend to become homogeneous in modern English. Thus **eá** appears as **i** (heáh *high*); as **é**, **ee**, or **ea** (eác *eke*, ceáce *cheek*, leáf *leaf*); as **e** or **ea** (heáfod *head*, deád *dead*); **ea** appears as **é**, **a**, or **o** (bealcian *belch*, earm *arm*, feallan *fall*, fealdan *fold*): **eó** or **eo** appears as **e**, **eá**, or **a** (deófol *devil*, heofon *heaven*, heorot *hart*, heorte *heart*, feor *far*), as **ie** (leóf *lief*, feónd *fiend*, theóf *thief*), as **ee** (treó *tree*; beo *bee*; deor *deer*, creópan *creep*), as **i** (meolc *milk*, seóc *sick*).

4. A.S. **a** appears as **o** or **oa** (anlic *anly*, hálig *holy*, bán *bone*, hláf *loaf*, fám *foam*; as **aw** (ganian *yawn*); as **ó** (wát *wot*, wedlác *wedlock*).

5. Long **o** takes the sound of **u** (oo), or **ŭ** (tó *to*; dón *do*; móna *moon*; móð *mother*, &c.).

6. A.S. **e** appears as **ee** (cwén *queen*, sécan *seek*, téð *teeth*).

7. All sorts of vowel sounds in unaccented syllables get to be represented by **ĕ**. (See *e.g.*, the inflexions of the time of Chaucer.) Compare the French *poiré* = *perry*, soudain = *sudden*, &c.

8. A.S. **c** (= k) appears as **ch** or **tch** (cild *child*; ceace *cheek*; cyrice *church*; spæc *speech*; bealcian *belch*; maca (companion) *match*; ceáp *cheap*; cempa *champion*; ceorl *churl*; streccan *stretch*; pic *pitch*); but not uniformly (compare *drink* and *drench*, *stink* and *stench*, *seek* and *beseech*, *pick* and *pitch*, and the words cyning *king*; ceol *keel*; cyssan *kiss*, &c.).

9. A.S. **cg** appears as **dge** (hrycg *ridge*; brycg *bridge*; mycg *midge*; ecg *edge*). This softening of the guttural to *ch* or soft *g* is due to French influence, but the sounds are not those represented in French by *ch* and soft *g*; hence the frequent insertion of *t* or *d*.

10. A.S. **g** or **cg** often disappears, or is replaced by **w** or **y** (bycgan *buy*; secgan *say*; fleógan *fly*; dæg *day*; morgen *morrow*; dagan *dawn*; lagu *law*; gnagan *gnaw*; hagol *hail*; nigon *nine*; fægr *fair*; mægen *main*; druncenian *drown*; isgicel *icicle*); especially at the end of a word (bodig *body*; dysig *dizzy*; hunig *honey*, &c.). Also at the beginning (gear *year*; gese *yes*; geond *yon*; geong *young*; gildan *yield*; gelic *like*; genoh *enough*; gif *if*, &c.).

11. The guttural **hg** or **gh** became sounded (and sometimes written) as **f** (þweorg *dwarf*; leahtor *laughter*; compare *cough* and *clough*). In early English we find *doftyr* (daughter); *caufte* (caught); *thof* (though); thruff (*through*).

12. Guttural **h** appears as **k**, **g**, or **gh** (cniht *knight*; Pihtas *Picts*; leoht *light*; eahta *eight*, &c.). Initial **h** often disappears (as hit *it*; hwing *wing*; hnecca *neck*; hlystan *listen*, &c.).

13. A.S. **sc** appears as **sh** (scild *shield*; scrúd *shroua*; sceal *shall*; seacan *shake*; æsc *ash*; flæsc *flesh*).

14. **S** has replaced **th** (as eaðe *ease*; *has* for hath, &c.).

15. **D**, **t**, and **th** are often interchanged. Compare *deck* and *thatch*; *burthen* and *burden*; *bud* and *button* (Fr. *bouton*); *drill*, *tril* (*nostril*) and *thrill*, &c.

16. **L** sometimes replaces **r**. Compare *Hal* and *Harry*; *Dolly* and *Dorothy*; *Sally* and *Sarah*. (See § 341.) Sometimes it replaces **n**, as in *luncheon* for *nuncheon*.

17. **M** replaces **n** final, as in *venom* (*venin*), *ransom* (*rançon*), &c., or springs out of **n** when followed by **b** or **f**, as *Dumbarton* (*Dun Breton*); *hamper* (*hanaper*); *Pomfret* (*Pontefract*).

18. Letters frequently disappear. Thus:

L before a guttural or **s** (ælc *each*; hwilc *which*; als *as*).

N has been lost from the words *us* (*German* uns), *tooth* (*Gothic* tunthus, *Lat.* dentem), *tithe* (tenth), *eleven* (endlufon), *goose* (gans), *other* (*Goth.* anthar), *mouth* (*German* mund), *could* = cuðe (cunnan), *five* (*German* fünf, *Gr.* πέντε), *Thursday* (Thunresdæg), &c. **N** final has disappeared from *my* (mine), *ago* (agone), *no* (none), &c. Similarly *fro* = from.

R has vanished from several words, as *speak* (sprecan), *pin* (*A.S.* preon, *Scotch* prin, *Old English* preen), *Fanny* (Frances), *cockade* (cocard), *palsy* (paralysis).

T and **d** and **th** have disappeared from *anvil* (anfilt), *Benedick* (Benedict), *gospel* (godspell), *answer* (andswarian), *best* (betst), *Essex* (East Saxons), *Norman* (*Northman*), *worship* (worthship), &c.

F has disappeared from *head* (heáfod), *woman* (wífman), *had* (hæfde), *lord* (hláford), &c.

19. Initial syllables tend to disappear. See § 341 and compare *reeve*, *gerefa*; *lone*, *alone* (*all one*); *board*, *aboard*, &c.

20. Internal syllables disappear. Compare *lark*, *laverock*; *last*, *latest*; *since*, *sithenes*; *Monday*, *Monandæg*; *fortnight*, *fourteennight*; *damsel*, *demoiselle*; *comrade*, *camarade*.

21. The loss of final syllables (especially inflexions) is too common to need special notice.

22. Letters sometimes intrude into words where they are not radical.

B or **p** and **d** or **t** appear after **m** and **n** respectively, as in *thumb*, *lamb*, *dumb*, *limb*, *number*, *glimpse* (from *gleam*), *sempstress* (*seam*), *empty* (*emtig*), *embers* (*æmyrie*), &c., *thunder* (*þunor*), *kindred* (*kinrede*), *anent* (*on-efn* or *on-emn*), *parchment* (*parchemin*), *ancient* (*ancien* from *antiquanus*), *tyrant* (*tyran*), *romaunt* (*roman*), *fond* (*fon* = a fool), *expound* (*expono*), *sound* (*son*), *lend* (*lænan*), *drownded* (for *drowned*), &c. **T** has also crept into *glisten* (*glisian*), *tapestry* (*tapisserie*), &c., and **d** into *alderliefest* = *allerliefest*. In *advance* (*avancer*) the *d* is an error.

G has intruded into *foreign*, *sovereign*, *impregnable* (*prendre*).

T is often a phonetic offgrowth of **s**, as in *against*, *betwixt*, *behest* (*behæs*), &c.

S has appeared at the beginning of various words, as *smelt*, *scratch*, *scrawl*,

sneeze, *smash*, &c., and has intruded into *island* (*ealand* or *igland*), *aisle* (*aile*), *demesne* (*dominium*).

N appears at the beginning of some words, as *Noll* (*Oliver*), *Nancy* (*Anne*), *Nell* (*Ellen*), *nuncle* (*uncle*), *nowche* (*owche*), *newt* (*efete*), and has intruded into *nightingale* (*nightegale*), *messenger*, *ensample*, *passenger*. (Compare § 341.)

R has intruded in *bridegroom* (*guma*), *vagrant* (*vagare*), *hoarse* (A S. *hás*), &c. (See § 341.)

23. Two consonants, or a consonant and a vowel, often change places (*metathesis*). Compare *bright* and *beorht*; *wright* and *wyrhta*; *brid* and *bird*; *thresh* and *þerscan*; *fresh* and *fersc*, &c.

24. Some words of Teutonic origin have assumed an initial **g** in passing through French. Compare *guile* and *wile*; *guard* and *ward*; *Guillaume* and *William*.

25. Consonants get assimilated through juxtaposition. Then we get *lammas* from *hláfmesse*; *gammer* from *godmother*; *gaffer* from *godfather*.

B. SCANDINAVIAN WORDS AND ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH.

Some of the most important of these are found in some geographical names :—

ark, argh } (temple or altar) { Arkholm, Grimsargh
beck (brook), Caldbeck
by (town), Whitby
dal (valley), Dalby
ey, a (island) { Orkney, Grimsa
fell (rock hill), Scawfell
ford, forth, firth } (inlet) { Seaford, Seaforth, Holmforth
force (waterfall), Mickleforce
garth, guard } (enclosure) { Dalegarth, Fishguard
gill (valley), Ormesgill
holm (island), Langholm
ness (headland), Skipness
scar (steep rock), Scarborough
skip (ship), Skipwith
thing, ting, ding } (place of meeting) { Thingwall, Tingwall, Dingwall
thorp, throp } (village) { Grimsthorpe, Milnthrop
toft (small field), Lowestoft
with (wood), Langwith

A LIST OF SOME CELTIC WORDS PRESERVED IN ENGLISH.

bag	crag	gown	lath	rug
bard	crock-ery	griddle	mattock	size
barrow	crowd (fiddle)	gruel	mesh	smooth
basket	cudgel	grumble	mop	soak
bog	dainty	gyve	muggy	solder
bran	darn	hawker	pail	tackle
bug-bear	flannel	hem	pan	tall
bump	flaw	hog	peck	tinker
button	fleam	knell	pitcher	trudge
cabin	funnel	knock	rail	welt
clout	fur	knoll	rasher	whip
coble	glen	lad	ridge	wicket
cock-boat	goblin	lass	rim	wire

The following geographical names are of Celtic origin:—*Rivers:*—Avon, Dee, Don, Ouse, Severn, Stour, Thames, Trent. *Hills:*—Cheviot, Chiltern, Grampian, Malvern, Mendip. *Islands:*—Arran, Bute, Man, Mull, Wight. *Counties:*—Devon, Dorset, Kent. *Towns:*—Liverpool, Penrith, Penzance.

The following Celtic elements are found in some geographical names:—*Aber* (mouth of a river), as, 'Aberdeen, Aber-brothwick, Aberwick (Berwick);' *Auchin* (field), as, 'Auchindoir, Auchinleck;' *Ard* or *Aird* (high, projecting), as, 'Ardnamurchan, Ardrishaig;' *Bal* (village), as, 'Balmoral;' *Ben* or *Pen* (mountain), as, 'Ben Nevis, Penmaenmawr;' *Blair* (field clear of wood), as, 'Blair Athol;' *Brae* (rough ground), as, 'Braemar;' *Caer* (fort), as, 'Caerleon (Carlisle); *Combe* or *Comp* (valley), as, 'Compton, Ilfracombe, Appuldurcombe;' *Dun* (hill), as, 'the Downs, Dumbarton;' *Inch* (island), as, 'Inchkeith, Inchcape;' *Inver* (mouth of a river), as, 'Inverness, Inverary;' *Kill* (cell, chapel), 'Kilmarnock;' *Lin* (deep pool), 'Linlithgow, King's Lynn;' *Llan* (church), 'Llandaff, Launceston;' *Tre* (town), 'Coventry (town of the convent), Oswestry;' *Strath* (broad valley), 'Strathfieldsaye.'

THE CLASSICAL ELEMENT IN ENGLISH.

The greater part of the abstract terms in English, and words relating to religion, law, science, and literature, are of Latin or Greek origin. Most words of three or more syllables are of classical origin, and a very large number of those of two syllables, the exceptions being mostly words formed by *English* suffixes from monosyllabic roots. Most monosyllabic words in English are of Teutonic origin, but many are derived from Latin and Greek, the greater part having come to us through French. The following belong to this class:—

ace (as)
age (aetaticum), *Old Fr.* édage
aid (adjutum)
aim (aestimare)
alms (ελεημοσυνη)
arch (arcus)
aunt (amita)
balm (balsamum)
base (bassus)
beast (bestia)
beef (boves)
blame (blasphemia)
boil (bullire)
boon (bonus)
brace (brachium)
brief (brevis)
bull (bulla)
cage* (cavea)
car, carry, charge (carrus)
cape (caput)
cash (capsa)
chafe (calefacere)
chain (catena)
chair (cathedra)
chalk (calx)
chance (cadentia)
charm (carmen)
chase (captiare)
chief (caput)
coin (cuneus)
cork (cortex)
couch (collocare)
count (comes)
count (computare)
cost (constare)
coy (quietus)
cue (cauda)
cull (colligere)
dame (domina)
daunt (domitare)
dean (decanus)
desk, dish (discus)
dose (δοσις)
doubt (dubitare)
dress (dirigere)
due (debitum)
duke (dux)
fair (feria)
faith (fides)
fay (fata)
feat (factum)
feign (fingere)
fierce (ferus)
foil (folium)
force (fortis)
forge (fabrica)
found (fundere)
fount (fons)
frail (fragilis)
frown (frons)
fruit (fructus)
fry (frigere)
glaive (gladius)
gourd (cucurbita)
grant (credentare)
grease (crassus)
grief (gravis)
host (hospit-)
hulk (ὁλκας)
inch (uncia)
jaw (gabata)
jest (gestum)
jet (jactum)
join (jungo)
joy (gaudium)
lace (laqueus)
lease (laxare)
liege (legius)
lounge (longus
mace (massa)
mail, *armour* (macula, *mesh*)
male (masculus)
mount (mons)

* Note the curious change of b, p, or v, between vowels into soft g. (See § 341.)

niece (neptis)
noise (noxia)
nurse (nutrix)
ounce (uncia)
pace (passus)
paint (pingere)
pair (par)
pay (pacare)
peace (pax)
peach (persica)
place (platea)
plait (plectere)
plea / plead (placitum)
plum (prunum)
plunge (*plumbicare*)
point (punctum)
poor (pauper)
praise (pretiare)
pray (precari)
preach (prædicare)
prey (præda)
priest (presbyter)
print (primere)
price / prize (pretium)
proof (probare)
push (pulsare)
quire (chorus)
quite (quietus)
rage / rave (rabies)
ray (radius)
rear (retro)
rill (rivulus)
river (riparius)
roll (rotulus)
round (rotundus)
rule (regula)
safe (salvus)
sage (sapiens)
sauce (salsus)
scarce (*ex-scarptus*)
scourge (ex-corrigere)
seal (sigillum)
search (*circare*)
seat (sedes)
short (curtus)
siege (assedium)
sir (senior)
sluice (exclusis)
soar (*exaurare*)
source (surgere)
spice (species)
spouse (sponsus)
sprain (exprimo)
spy (specio)
squad, square (*quadrare*)
stage (*staticus*)
strain (stringo)
strait (strictus)
strange (extraneus)
street (strata)
sue, suit (sequor)
sure (securus)
taint (tinctus)
task (taxare)
taste (*taxitare*)
taunt (temptare)
tense (tempus)
tour / turn (tornare)
trace / trait (tractus)
treat (tractare)
vaunt (*vanitare*)
veal (vitulus)
view (videre)
void (viduus)
vouch (vocare)
vow (votum)
waste (vastus)

The above list does not include a large number of monosyllables, the Latin origin of which is obvious, such as *cede* (*cedo*), *long* (*longus*).

GRIMM'S LAW.

Besides words like the foregoing, which with many others have been distinctly *imported* from the classical languages into English, there are numerous instances in which a word or root is common to several of the Aryan languages, without having been borrowed by any one from another, all having received the word in common from some more primitive source. In tracing the variations which such words assume, a very remarkable relation between the consonants is found, which is commonly known as 'Grimm's Law.'

If the same roots or the same words exist (1) in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, &c., (2) in Gothic or the Low German dialects, and (3) in Old High German, then I. When the first class have an aspirate the second have the corresponding soft check (*i.e. flat* or *middle* mute), the third the corresponding hard check (*i.e. sharp* or *thin* mute). II. When the first class have a soft check (*flat* or *middle* mute), we find the corresponding hard check (*sharp* or *thin* mute) in the second class, and the corresponding aspirate in the third. III. When the first class have a hard consonant (*sharp* or *thin* mute), the second have the aspirate, and the third the soft check (*flat* or *middle* mute). In this third section of the rule, however, the law holds good for Old High German only as regards the *dental* series of mutes, the middle (or flat) guttural being generally replaced by *h*, and the middle (or flat) labial by *f*.*

The three branches of the law given above may be easily remembered in the following way:—Take a circular disc of cardboard, and mark on it three radii, inclined each to each at an angle of 120°. Mark these three radii (1), (2), and (3), corresponding respectively to the three classes of languages above referred to—(1) denoting Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, &c.; (2) denoting Gothic and Low German dialects (including English); and (3) denoting Old High German. Place the disc on a sheet of paper, and write *Aspirate* opposite the

* The above is the law in its general form. It is subject to special modifications and exceptions.

end of radius (1), *Middle* or *Flat* opposite the end of radius (2), and *Thin* or *Sharp* opposite the end of radius (3). The disc may be shifted, so that radius (1), instead of pointing to *Aspirate*, may point to the other two classes of mutes in succession. In each position of the disc, each radius will point to the class of mutes that may be expected to characterize any word that is common to all three classes of languages, provided that one radius points to the class of mutes which the word in question exhibits in that group of languages which that radius represents.

The law may also be easily recollected in the following way. It is obvious that the arrangement of three balls in three holes is settled as soon as two balls have been arranged in two holes. Similarly if we know how two of the three classes of mutes are apportioned to two of the three classes of languages, the assignment of the third follows as a matter of course. If we take Latin as representing the Sanskrit—Greek—Latin group, and English as representing the Low German group, the little formula "**duo fratres, two brothers,**" will give us all that we want. The **d** of *duo* and the **t** of *two* remind us that a flat (or middle) mute in the Latin class corresponds to a sharp (or thin) mute in the English class. The **f** of *fratres* and the **b** of *brothers* remind us that an aspirate in the Latin class answers to a flat mute in the English class. The **t** of *fratres* and the **th** of *brothers* remind us that a sharp (or thin) mute in the Latin class answers to an aspirate in the English class. The remaining class of mutes in each case belongs to Old High German. Practically our main concern is with the relations between Greek, Latin, and English roots, and for these the formula is sufficient.

The following are a few instances of the application of this law :—

I.

	Greek.	*Latin.*	*Sanskrit.*	*English.* (*Ang. Sax.*)	*Gothic.*	*Old High German.*
1.	χήν	(h)anser	hansa	goose	gans	kans
	χθές	heri	hyas	gestrandaeg	gistra	kestar
	χόρτος	hortus		garden	gards	karto
2.	θυγάτηρ			daughter	daughtar	tohtar
	θύρα			door	daur	tor
	θήρ	fera		deer	dius	tior
	θαρσεῖν		dhrish	dare	ga-daur-san	tarran
		medius	madhya	middle		mitte
3.	φέρω	fero	bhri	bear	baira	piru
	(φράτρα)	frater	bhratri	brother	brôthar	pruoder
	φηγός	fagus		beech	bôka	puocha
	φύω	fu-i	bhavâmi	be (be-om)		pim

II.

4.	γνῶ-	gnosco	jnâ	know	kan	chan
	γένος	genus	jâti	kin	kuni	chuni
	γόνυ	genu	jânu	knee	kniu	chniu
	μέγας	mag-nus	mah-at	A.S. micel	mih-ils	mih-il
	ἐγώ	ego		A.S. ic	ik	ih (G. ich)

	Greek.	*Latin.*	*Sanskrit.*	*English. (Ang. Sax.)*	*Gothic.*	*Old High German.*
5.	ποδ-ός	ped-is		foot		vuoz
	δεκα	decem	dasan	ten	taihun	zehan
	δύω	duo		two	twai	zwei
	οδόντ-ος	dent-is	dant-as	tooth	tunth	
6.	κάνναβις			help	hilfa	hilfu
				hemp		hanaf

III.

7.	κεφαλή	caput	kapâla	A S. heafod	haubith	houpit
	καρδία	cord-is	hridaya	heart	hairto	(herza)
	(κός)	qui-s		A.S. hwa	hvas	
8.	τύ	tu	twam	thou	thu	du
	τρεῖς	tres	trayas	three	threis	dri
	ἕτερος	alter	ant-ara	other	anthar	andar
9.	πατήρ	pater	pitri	father	fadar	
	ὑπέρ	super	upari	over	ufar	ubar
	πλέος	ple-nus	pûrna	full	fulls	
		piscis		fish	fisks	
		pellis		fell		

General Table of Grimm's Law.

	I.			II.			III.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I. Sanskrit ...	*gh (h)*	*dh (h)*	*bh (h)*	*g*	*d*	*b*	*k*	*t*	*p*
I. Greek	χ	θ	φ	γ	δ	β	κ	τ	π
I. Latin	*h, f (g, v)*	*f (d, b)*	*f (b)*	*g*	*d*	*b*	*c, qu*	*t*	*p*
II. Gothic, &c.	*g*	*d*	*b*	*k*	*t*	*(p)*	*h, g (f)*	*th, d*	*f, b*
III. O. H. Ger.	*k*	*t*	*p*	*ch*	*z*	*ph (f)*	*h, g, k*	*d*	*f, v*

The following pairs of words illustrate the law as it relates to English and the classical languages;—προ, *fore*; γυνή, *cwén*; καρα, *harns* (*Sc.*); δάκρυ, *tear*; χόλη, *gall*; βῦθος, *pyt* or *pit*; δαμάω, *tame*; δρῦ-s, *treow*, *tree*; ὕδωρ, *water*; πτέρον, *feather*; καρπος, *harvest*; κλύω, *hlý-st*, *listen*; μέθυ, *mead*; πῶλος, *foal*; πέντε (*fünf*), *five*; fra(n)go, *break*; calamus, *halm*; collum, *heals*, *halter*; macer, *mæger*, *meagre*; acer, *eager*; homo, *guma*; tonare, *thunder*; lingua (=dingua), *tongue*; videre, *witan*; torquere, *throw*; tego, *thack*, *thatch*; piscis, *fish*; pecus, *feoh*; tum, tam, *the*, *that*, &c; u-ter, *whether*; porcus, *fearh*; tum-eo, *thumb*; palea, *fealo* (*yellow*); capio, *habban*, *have*.

A List of the principal Latin Words Derivatives from which are found in English.*

Acer (*sharp*), acidus (*sour*), acerbus (*bitter*); acrid, acerbity, acrimony, acid.
Acuo (*I sharpen*); acute, acumen.
Aedes (*house*); edifice, edify.
Aequus (*level*); equal, equation, adequate, equity, equivocate, equinox.
Aestimo (*I value*); estimate, esteem, aim.
Aestus (*tide*); estuary.
Aeternus (*of endless duration*); eternity.
Aevum (*age*); coeval, primeval.
Ager (*field*); agriculture, agrarian.
Agger (*heap*); exaggerate.
Ago (*I set in motion, drive, do*); agent, act, agile, agitate.
Alacer (*brisk*); alacrity.
Alius (*other*), alter (*other of two*); alien, alter, alternate, alibi.
Alo (*I nourish*); alimony, aliment.
Altus (*high, deep*); altitude, exalt.
Ambitio (*courting favour*); ambition.
Ambulo (*I walk*); amble, somnambulist
Amo (*I love*), amicus (*friend*), amor (*love*); amour, amorous, amicable, amiable.
Amoenus (*pleasant*); amenity.
Amplus (*large*); ample, amplify.
Ango (*I choke*), anxius; anxious, anxiety, anguish, anger.
Angulus (*corner, bend*); angle.
Anima (*breath*), animus (*mind*); animate, animal, magnanimous.
Annulus (*ring*); annular.
Annus (*year*); annual, anniversary.
Anus (*old woman*); anile.
Aperio (*I open*); April, aperient, aperture.
Apis (*bee*); apiary.
Appello (*I call*); appellation, appeal.
Aptus (*fitted*); apto (*I fit*); adapt, apt.
Aqua (*water*); aqueous, aqueduct, aquatic.
Arbiter (*umpire*); arbitrate, arbitrary.
Arbor (*tree*); arbour.
Arcus (*bow*); arc, arch.
Ardeo (*I burn*); ardent, arson.
Arduus (*steep*); arduous.
Arguo (*I prove*); argue, argument.
Aridus (*dry*); arid, aridity.
Arma (*fittings*); arms, armour.
Aro (*I plough*); arable.
Ars (*skill*); art, artist, artifice.
Artus (*joint*), articulus (*little joint or fastening*); articulate, article.
Asinus (*ass*); asinine.
Asper (*rough*); exasperate, asperity.
Audax (*bold*); audacious, audacity.
Audio (*I hear*); audience, audible.
Augeo (*I increase*); auction, author.
Auris (*ear*); aurist, auricular.
Aurum (*gold*); auriferous.
Auspex (*one who takes omens from birds*); auspicious.
Auxilium (*help*); auxiliary
Avarus (*greedy*); avarice, avaricious.
Avidus (*eager*); avidity.
Avis (*bird*); aviary.

Barba (*beard*); barb, barber.
Beatus (*blessed*); beatitude.
Bellum (*war*); belligerent, rebel.
Bene (*well*); benediction, benefit.
Benignus (*kind*); benign, benignity
Bestia (*beast*); beast, bestial.
Bini (*two by two*); binary, combine.
Bis (*twice*); bissextile, bisect.
Brevis (*short*); brief, brevity.

Caballus (*horse*); cavalry.
Cado, *sup.* casum (*I fall*); cadence, ac-cident, oc-casion, casual.
Caedo, caesum (*I cut*); suicide, incision, concise, cement (=caedimentum).
Calcitro (*I kick*, from calx '*heel*'), recalcitrant.
Calculus (*pebble*); calculate.
Calx; chalk, calcine.
Callus (*hard skin*), callosus; callous.
Campus (*plain*); camp, encamp, champaign.
Candeo (*I burn or shine*), candidus (*white*); candid, incendiary, candle, candour.
Canis (*dog*); canine.
Canna (*reed*); canal, channel.
Canto (*I sing*); chant incantation.
Capillus (*hair*); capillary.
Capio (*I take*), captus (*taken*); captive, capacity, accept, recipient, anticipate.
Caput (*head*); cape, capital, captain, chapter, precipitate, decapitate.
Carbo (*coal*); carbon, carboniferous.
Carcer (*prison*); incarcerate.
Cardo (*hinge*); cardinal.
Carmen (*song*); charm.
Caro, carnis (*flesh*); carnal, incarnate, charnel-house, carnival.
Carus (*dear*); charity, cherish.
Castigo (*restrain*); castigate, chastise.
Castus (*pure*); chaste.
Casus (*falling*); case, casual, casuistry.
Causa; cause; excuse. accuse.
Caveo (*I take care*); caution.
Cavus (*hollow*); cave, excavate.
Cedo (*I go*); cede, precede, proceed, cession.
Celeber (*frequented*); celebrate.
Celer (*quick*); celerity, accelerate.
Celo (*I hide*); conceal.
Censeo (*I judge*); censor, censure.

* In most cases only a few samples of the English derivatives are given.

Centum (*hundred*); cent, century.
Centrum; centre, concentrate, centrifugal.
Cerno, cretum (*I distinguish*); discern, discreet, secret, concern.
Certus (*resolved*); certain, certify.
Cesso (*I loiter*); cease, cessation.
Charta (*paper*); chart, charter, cartoon.
Cingo (*I gird*); cincture, succinct.
Circum (*round*), **circus** (*a circle*); circle, circulate, circuit.
Cito (*I rouse*); citation, excite.
Civis (*citizen*); civil, civic, city (civitas).
Clamo (*I shout*); claim, clamour.
Clarus (*bright*); clear, clarify.
Classis; class, classic.
Claudo (*I shut*); exclude, include, conclude, close, enclose, cloister.
Clemens (*mild*); clemency, inclement.
Clino (*I bend*); incline, declension.
Clivus (*sloping ground*); declivity.
Coelebs (*bachelor*); celibacy.
Coelum (*heaven*); celestial.
Cogito (*I think*); cogitate.
Cognosco (*I examine*); recognize, cognizant.
Colo (*I till*); culture, cultivate, colony.
Color; colour.
Comes (*companion*); concomitant, count.
Commodus (*convenient*); commodious, incommode.
Communis; common, community.
Contra (*against*); counter, contrary.
Copia (*plenty*); copious, copy (to produce an *abundance* of specimens).
Copulo (*I join together*); copulative.
Coquo (*I boil*); cook, decoction.
Cor, cordis (*heart*); cordial, concord, record.
Corona; crown, coronation.
Corpus (*body*); corps, corpse, incorporate, corporeal, corpulent.
Cras (*to-morrow*); procrastinate.
Credo (*I believe*); creed, incredible, credit.
Creo; create.
Cresco (*I grow*); increase, crescent.
Crimen (*charge*); crime, criminal.
Crudus (*raw*), crudelis; cruel, crude.
Crux (*cross*); crusade, crucify, excruciate.
Cubo, cumbo (*I lie*); succumb, recumbent.
Cubitus (*a bend, elbow*); cubit.
Culpa (*fault*); inculpate, culpable.
Cumulus (*heap*); accumulate.
Cupidus (*eager*); cupid, cupidity.
Cura (*care*); cure, curious, procure, secure.
Curro, cursum (*I run*); concur, discursive, current, course, succour.
Curvus (*bent*); curve.
Custodia (*guard*); custody.

Damno; damn, condemn.
Debeo, debitum (*I owe*); debt, debit.
Debilis (*weak*); debility.
Decem (*ten*); December, decimal.
Decens (*becoming*); decent, decorous.
Densus; dense, condense.
Dens (*tooth*); dentist, trident, indent.
Desidero (*I long for*); desire, desiderate.
Deus *God*); deity, deify, deodand (*to be given to God*).
Dexter (*right*); dexterity.

Dico, dictum (*I say*); contradict, predict, diction, dictate.
Dies (*day*); diary, diurnal.
Digitus (*finger*); digit, digital.
Dignus (*worthy*); condign, dignity, deign.
Disco (*I learn*); disciple, discipline.
Divido; divide, division.
Divinus; divine, divination.
Do, datum (*I give*); dative, add, date.
Doceo (*I teach*); docile, doctor.
Dolor (*grief*), **doleo** (*I grieve*); dolorous, condole.
Domo (*I tame*); indomitable.
Domus (*house*); domestic, dome.
Dominus (*master*); dominate, domain.
Dono (*I present*); donation, condone.
Dormio (*I sleep*); dormant, dormitory.
Dubius (*doubtful*); doubt, dubious, indubitable.
Duco, ductum (*I lead*), dux; conduct, duke, adduce, seduce, educate.
Duo (*two*); dual, duet, duel.
Durus (*hard*); endure, durable, indurate.

Ebrius (*drunken*); ebriety, inebriate.
Edo (*I eat*); edible, esculent (*from* esca).
Ego (*I*); egotist *or* egoist.
Emo (*I buy*); redeem, exempt.
Eo, ivi, itum (*I go*); exit, initial, perish.
Equus (*horse*), eques (*horseman*); equine, equerry, equitation.
Erro (*I wander*); err, error, erroneous, erratic, aberration.
Examino (*I weigh*); examine.
Exemplum; example, sample.
Exerceo; exercise.
Expedio (*I set free*); expedite, expedient.
Experior (*I try*); expert, experience.

Faber (*mechanic, engineer*); fabric, fabricate.
Fabula (*little story*); fable, fabulous.
Facetus (*clever*); facetious
Facies (*make*); face, superficial.
Facilis (*easy*); facile, difficulty, faculty, facilitate.
Facio (*I make, do*); fact, faction, affect, deficient, benefactor, perfect, feat.
Fallo (*I deceive*); false, fallible, fail.
Fama (*report*); fame, infamous.
Familia; family, familiar.
Fans (*speaking*), fatum (*what is spoken*); infant, fate, fatal.
Fanum (*temple*); fane, profane, fanatic.
Fastidium (*loathing*), fastidious.
Faveo; favour.
Febris; fever, febrile.
Fecundus (*fertile*); fecundity.
Felis (*cat*); feline.
Felix (*happy*); felicity.
Femina (*woman*); feminine, effeminate.
Fendo (*I strike*); defend, fence, offend, offence.
Fero (*I bear*); fertile, infer; *part.* latus; dilate, translate.
Ferox; ferocious, ferocity.
Ferrum (*iron*); ferruginous, farrier.
Ferveo (*I boil*); fervent, fervid, effervesce.
Festus (*solemn*); festive, feast.

Fides (*faith*), fido (*I trust*); fidelity, confide, perfidy, defy.
Figo, fixum (*I fasten*); fix, crucifix.
Filius (*son*); filial, affiliate.
Findo, fissum (*I cleave*); fissure, fissile.
Fingo (*I shape*); fiction, figure, feign.
Finis (*end*); final, confine, infinitive.
Firmus; firm, confirm, affirm.
Fiscus (*treasury*); fiscal, confiscate.
Flagellum (*scourge*, lit. *scorcher*); flagellate.
Flagitium (*disgrace*); flagitious.
Flagro (*I burn*); flagrant, conflagration.
Flamma; flame, inflammation.
Flo, flatum (*I blow*); inflate, flatulent.
Flecto (*I bend*); deflect, flexible, circumflex.
Fligo (*I strike*); afflict, profligate.
Flos (*flower*); florid, flourish.
Fluo, fluxum (*I flow*), fluctus (*wave*); flux, influence, fluid.
Fodio, fossum (*I dig*); fosse, fossil.
Folium (*leaf*); foliage, trefoil, exfoliate.
Fons; fount, fountain.
Forma; form, reform, inform.
Formido (*fear*); formidable.
Fors, fortuna; fortune.
Fortis (*strong*); fortify, fortress.
Frango, fractum (*I break*); fragile, frail, infringe, infraction, fragment, fracture.
Frater (*brother*); fraternal, fratricide.
Fraus, fraudis; fraud.
Frequens; frequent.
Frico (*I rub*); friction.
Frigus (*cold*); frigid, refrigerate.
Frons; front, affront, frontispiece.
Fructus (*fruit*); fruor (*I enjoy*); fruit, fructify, fruction, frugal (*frugalis*).
Frustra (*in vain*); frustrate.
Fugio (*I flee*); fugitive, refuge.
Fulgeo (*I lighten*); refulgent.
Fulmen (*thunderbolt*); fulminate.
Fumus (*smoke*); fumigate, fume.
Fundo (*I pour*); foundry, refund, confound, confuse.
Fundus (*bottom*); found, foundation, profound.
Fungor (*I discharge*); function, defunct.
Funus; funeral.
Fur (*thief*); furtive.

Gelu (*ice*); gelid, congeal, jelly.
Gens (*race*), gigno (*root* gen-), *I beget*; genus (*kind*); gentile, generate, gender, degenerate, general, gentle.
Gero, gestum (*I bear*); gesture, suggest, belligerent.
Glacies (*ice*); glass, glacial, glazier.
Glans (*kernel*); gland, glandular.
Globus (*ball*); globe, conglomerate.
Gloria; glory.
Gradus (*step*), gradior (*I walk*); grade, digression, transgress, aggression.
Grandis (*large*); grand, aggrandize.
Granum (*grain*); granular.
Gratia; grace, gratuitous, gratis.
Gratus; grateful, gratitude.
Gravis (*heavy*); grave, grief, gravitation.
Grex (*flock*); gregarious, congregate.
Gubernо (*I pilot*); govern.

Habeo (*I have*); have, habit, prohibit.
Habito (*dwell*); habitation, inhabit.
Haereo (*I stick*); adhere, hesitate.
Haeres (*heir*); inherit, hereditary.
Halo (*I breathe*); exhale, inhale.
Haurio, haustum (*I draw*); exhaust.
Herba; herb, herbaceous.
Hibernus (*wintry*); hibernate.
Histrio (*actor*); histrionic.
Homo (*man*); human, homicide.
Honestus; honest.
Honor; honour, honorary.
Horreo (*I shudder*), horror, horrid, abhor.
Hortor; exhort.
Hortus (*garden*); horticulture.
Hospes (*guest*); hospitable, host.
Hostis (*enemy*); hostile.
Humeo (*I am wet*); humid, humour.
Humus (*ground*); exhume, humble.

Ignis (*fire*); ignite, igneous.
Ignoro; ignore, ignorant.
Imago; image, imagine.
Impero (*I command*); empire, imperious, imperative.
Indico (*I point*); indicate.
Inferus (*low*); inferior, infernal.
Ingenium (*talent*); ingenious, engine.
Ingenuus (*native*); ingenuity.
Insula (*island*); insulate, insular.
Integer (*whole*); integral, integrity.
Intelligo (*I perceive*); intelligent, intellect.
Invito; invite.
Ira (*anger*); ire, irate, irascible.
Irrito (*I provoke*); irritate.
Iterum (*again*); reiterate.
Iter, itineris (*journey*); itinerant.

Jaceo (*I lie down*); adjacent.
Jacio, jactum (*I throw*); eject, object, adjective, conjecture.
Jocus; joke, jocular.
Judex; judge, judicious, prejudice.
Jugum (*yoke*); conjugal, conjugate, jugular.
Jungo, junctum; join, joint, juncture, conjunction, injunction.
Juro (*I swear*); conjure, jury, perjury.
Jus (*justice*), justus (*just*); just, injury, jurisdiction.
Juvenis (*young*); juvenile, junior.

Labor; labour, laboratory.
Labor (*I slide*); lapse, collapse.
Lac (*milk*); lacteal, lactic.
Lacrima (*tear*); lacrimose, lacrymal.
Laedo, laesum (*I dash* or *hurt*); lesion, elide, collision.
Langueo, **languidus**; languish, languid.
Lapis (*stone*); lapidary, dilapidate.
Largus; large.
Latus (*broad*); latitude, dilate.
Latus (*side*); lateral, equilateral.
Laus, laudis (*praise*); laud, laudable.
Lavo (*I wash*); lavatory, lave.
Laxus (*loose*); lax, relax.
Lego (*I depute*); legate, legacy.
Lego, lectum (*I gather*); collect, elect, lecture, college, legion.

Lenis (*smooth*); lenity.
Levis (*light*), levo (*I lift*); levity, alleviate, relieve, elevate.
Lex, legis (*law*); legal, legislate.
Liber (*free*); liberal, deliver.
Liber (*book*); library, libel.
Libra (*balance*); libration, deliberate.
Licet (*it is lawful*); licence, illicit.
Ligo (*I tie*); oblige, religion, league, ligament.
Limen (*threshold*); eliminate (=put outside the threshold).
Limes (*boundary*); limit.
Linea; line, lineal.
Lingua (*tongue*); linguist, language.
Linquo, lictum (*I leave*); relinquish, relict.
Liquor, liquidus; liquid, liquefy.
Litera; letter, literal, illiterate.
Locus (*place*); locate, local, locomotion.
Longus; long, longitude, elongate.
Loquor (*I speak*), loquax; elocution, loquacious, colloquy, eloquent.
Lucrum (*gain*); lucrative, lucre.
Ludo, lusum (*I play*); elude, prelude, illusion, ludicrous.
Lumen (*light*); luminous, illuminate.
Luna (*moon*); lunar, lunatic.
Luo (*I wash*); dilute, ablution, alluvial.
Lustrum (*purification*); lustre, illustrate.
Lux (*light*); lucid, elucidate.

Machina; machine.
Macula (*spot*); immaculate.
Magister; magistrate, master.
Magnus (*great*), major (*greater*); magnitude, majesty, mayor.
Malus (*bad*); malice, maltreat, malady.
Mamma (*breast*); mamma, mammalia.
Mando (*commit, enjoin*); mandate, commend.
Maneo, mansum (*I remain*); mansion, remain, remnant, permanent.
Manus (*hand*); manual, manufactory, manuscript, maintain, manacle, emancipate, manumit.
Mare (*sea*); marine, mariner.
Mars; martial.
Mater (*mother*); maternal, matricide, matron, matrimony.
Materia (*timber, stuff*); matter, material.
Maturus (*ripe*); mature, premature.
Medeor (*I heal*); remedy, medicine.
Medius (*middle*); mediator, immediate.
Melior (*better*); ameliorate
Membrum (*limb*); member, membrane.
Memor (*mindful*); memini (*I remember*); remember, memory, commemorate.
Mendax (*lying*); mendacious.
Mendicus (*beggar*); mendicant.
Mendum (*fault*); mend, emendation.
Mens, mentis (*mind*); mental, vehement.
Mereo (*I deserve*); merit.
Mergo (*I plunge*); immerse, emergency.
Merx (*wares*); merchant, market, mercer.
Metior, mensus sum (*I measure*); immense, mensuration, measure.
Migro; emigrate.
Miles (*soldier*); military, militate.
Mille (*thousand*); mile, million.
Minister (*servant*); minister, ministry.
Minor (*less*), minuo (*I lessen*); diminish, minority, minute.
Miror (*I admire*); admire, miracle.
Misceo, mixtum (*I mix*); miscellany, promiscuous.
Miser (*wretched*); miser, misery.
Mitto, missum (*I send*); admit, permit, promise, mission, missile.
Modus (*measure*); mode, mood, model, moderate, modest, modulation.
Mola; mill, meal, molar, immolate, emolument (*the miller's perquisite*).
Mollis (*soft*); emollient, mollify.
Moneo (*I warn*); admonish, monument, monster, monitor.
Mons; mount, mountain, surmount, promontory.
Monstro (*I show*); demonstrate.
Morbus (*disease*); morbific, morbid.
Mordeo, morsum (*I bite*); remorse, morsel.
Mors, mortis (*death*); mortal, mortuary.
Mos, moris (*custom*); moral.
Moveo, motum (*I move*), mobilis; move, motive, moment, mobility, emotion.
Multus (*many*); multitude, multiple.
Mundus (*world*); mundane.
Munio (*I fortify*); munition, muniment.
Munus (*gift, share*); remunerate, immunity.
Murus (*wall*); mural, intramural.
Musa (*muse*); music, amuse, museum.
Muto (*I change*); mutable, commute.

Narro; narrate, narrative.
Nascor, natus sum (*I am born*); nascent native, nation, cognate, nature.
Nasus (*nose*); nasal.
Navis (*ship*); naval, navigate, navy.
Nauta (*sailor*); nautical, nautilus.
Necesse; necessary, necessity.
Necto, nexum (*I tie*); connect, annex.
Nefas (*unspeakable wickedness*); nefarious.
Nego (*I deny*); negation, renegade.
Negotium (*business*); negotiate.
Nervus (*string*); nerve, enervate.
Neuter (*not either*); neuter, neutral.
Niger (*black*); negro.
Nihil (*nothing*); annihilate
Noceo (*I hurt*); innocent, noxious.
No-sco, notum (*I know*); no-men (*name*), nobilis (*noble*); noun, name, nominal, noble, ignominy, note, notion.
Non (*not*); non-entity, non-age.
Norma (*rule*); normal, enormous.
Novem (*nine*); November
Novus (*new*); novel, renovate, novice.
Nox (*night*); nocturnal, equinox.
Nubo (*I marry*); nuptial, connubial.
Nudus (*naked*); nude, denude.
Nullus (*none*); nullity, annul.
Numerus (*number*); numeral, enumerate.
Nuntio; announce, renounce.
Nutrio (*I nourish*); nutritious.
Nutrix; nurse.

Obliquus; oblique.
Oblivio (from liv-idus); oblivion.
Obscurus (*dark*); obscure.

Occulo (*hide*); occult.
Occupo (*I lay hold of*); occupy, occupation.
Octo (*eight*); octave, October.
Oculus (*eye, bud*); ocular, oculist.
Odium *hatred*), odious, odium.
Odor (*smell*); odour, odorous, redolent.
Officium (*duty*); office, officious.
Oleum (*oil*); oleaginous.
Omen; ominous, abominate.
Omnis (*all*); omnipotent, omnibus.
Onus, oneris (*load*); onerous, exonerate.
Opinor (*I think*); opine, opinion.
Opto (*I desire*); option, adopt.
Opus, operis (*work*); operate.
Orbis (*circle*); orb, orbit, exorbitant.
Ordo (*order*); ordain, ordinary,
Orior, ortus (*I rise*); origin, abortive.
Oro (*I speak*); orator, adore.
Os, oris (*mouth*); oral.
Osculor (*I kiss*); oscillate.
Ovum (*egg*); oviparous, oval.

Paciscor, pactus (*I make an agreement*); pact, compact
Pagus (*village*); pagan, peasant.
Pallium (*cloak*); pall, palliate.
Palpo (*I stroke*); palpable, palpitate.
Palus (*stake*); pale, palisade, impale.
Pando, pansum and passum (*I spread*); expand, expanse, compass.
Pango, pactum (*I fasten*); impinge, compact.
Panis (*bread*); companion (one who shares your bread).
Par (*equal*); peer, compare.
Parco (*I spare*); parsimony.
Pareo (*I appear*); apparent.
Pario (*I bring forth*); parent, viviparous.
Paro (*I put, prepare*); repair, compare.
Pars (*part*); partition, party, particle, participle, parse, particular.
Pasco, pastum (*I feed*) pasture, pastor.
Pater (*father*); paternal, patron, patrimony, patrician.
Patria (*country*); patriot, expatriate.
Patior, passus (*I suffer*); patient, passion.
Pauper (*poor*) pauper, poverty.
Pax, pacis (*peace*); pacific.
Pectus (*breast*); pectoral, expectorate.
Peculium (*private property*); peculiar, peculation.
Pecunia (*money*); pecuniary.
Pello (*I drive*); compel, repulse, pulse.
Pendeo (*I hang*); pendo, pensum (*I hang* or *weigh*); depend, pension, recompense, perpendicular.
Penetro (*I pierce*); penetrate.
Penuria (*want*); penury, penurious.
Perdo (*I lose*); perdition.
Persona (*mask*); person.
Pes, pedis (*foot*); pedal, pedestrian, impede, expedite, biped.
Pestis (*plague*); pest, pestilence.
Peto, petitum (*ask, seek*); petition, compete, repeat, appetite.
Pingo, pictum (*paint*); depict, picture.
Pilo (*I steal*); pillage, compile.
Piscis (*fish*); piscatory.
Pius (*dutiful*); pious, piety, pity.
Placeo (*I please*); placid, pleasant.
Plango; complain.
Planta; plant, plantation.
Planus (*level*); plane, plain.
Plaudo (*I clap*); applaud, plausible.
Plebs (*commonalty*); plebeian.
Plecto (*I weave*); complex, perplex.
Pleo (*I fill*); plenus (*full*); plenary, complete, replete, supply.
Plico (*I fold*); apply, comply, duplicity, double, complex, pliable, surplice, accomplice.
Ploro (*I weep*); deplore, explore.
Plumbum (*lead*); plumber, plummet.
Plus, pluris (*more*); plural, surplus.
Pœna (*fine*), punio (*punish*); penal, punitive, repent, penance, penitent.
Polio; polish, polite.
Pondus (*weight*); pound, ponder.
Pono, positum (*I place*); impose, deposit, compound, position.
Populus (*people*); popular, publish.
Porcus (*hog*); pork.
Porta (*door*); portal, portico, porthole.
Porto (*I carry*); export, important.
Portus (*harbour*); port.
Possum (*I can*); possible, potent.
Post (*after*); posterity.
Postulo (*I demand*); postulate.
Præda (*plunder*); predatory, prey.
Pravus (*crooked*); deprave, depravity.
Precor (*I pray*); deprecate, precarious.
Prehendo (*I grasp*); apprehend, comprehend.
Premo, pressum (*I press*); express.
Primus (*first*); primeval, primrose.
Princeps (*prince*); principal.
Privo (*I deprive*); deprive, private.
Probo (*I make good*); prove, probable, reprobate.
Probrum (*shameful acts*); opprobrious.
Probus (*honest, good*); probity.
Promo, promptus; prompt.
Prope (*near*), proximus (*nearest*); propinquity, proximate.
Proprius (*one's own*); proper, property, propriety.
Pudor (*shame*), pudet; impudent.
Puer (*boy*); puerile.
Pugil (*boxer*); pugilist.
Pugno (*I fight*); pugnacious, impugn.
Pulmo (*lungs*); pulmonary.
Pungo, punctum (*I prick*); pungent, puncture, expunge, point.
Pupus, pupillus (*a little boy*); pupil, puppet.
Purgo (*I cleanse*); purge, purgatory.
Purus; pure, purify.
Puto (*I cut, calculate, think*); amputate, compute, count, depute.
Putris (*rotten*); putrid, putrefy.

Quæro, quæsitum (*I seek*); question, inquire, query, exquisite.
Qualis (*of which kind*); quality, qualify.
Quantus (*how great*); quantity.
Quatio, quassum, cutio, cussum (*I shake*); quash, percussion, discuss.
Quartus (*fourth*), quadra (*square*); quart, quarter, quadrant, quadratic.

Queror (*I complain*); querulous.
Quies (*rest*); quiet, acquiesce.
Quinque, quintus; quintessence.

Radius (*ray*); radius, radiate.
Radix (*root*); radical, eradicate.
Rado, rasum (*I scrape*); erase, razor.
Ramus (*branch*); ramify.
Rapio (*I snatch*); rapid. rapture, rapine, rapacious. ravish, ravage.
Rarus (*thin*); rare, rarefy.
Ratio (*reckoning*); reason, rational.
Ratus (*reckoned*); ratify, rate.
Rego (*I make straight*); regular direct, regent, regiment, rector, rectify.
Rex (*king*); regal, regicide.
Regnum; reign, regnant.
Repo (*I creep*); reptile, surreptitious.
Res (*thing*); real, republic.
Rete (*net*); retina, reticule.
Rideo, risum (*I laugh*); deride, risible.
Rigeo (*I am stiff*); rigid, rigour.
Rigo (*I water*); irrigate.
Ritus; rite, ritual.
Rivus (*brook*, rivalis (*having the same brook in common*; river, rival, derive, rivulet.
Robur (*oak, strength*); robust, corroborate.
Rodo, rosum (*I gnaw*); corrode, corrosion.
Rogo (*I ask*); arrogate, prorogue.
Rota (*wheel*); rotate, rotary.
Rotundus; round, rotund.
Rudis (*untaught*); rude, erudite, rudiment.
Ruga (*wrinkle*); corrugate.
Rumpo, ruptum (*I break*); rupture, eruption, corrupt, bankrupt.
Ruo (*I rush*); ruin.
Rus, ruris (*country*); rustic, rural.

Sacer (*sacred*), sacerdos (*priest*); sacred, sacrifice, sacerdotal.
Sagax (*knowing*); sage, sagacious, presage.
Sal; salt, saline, salary.
Salio, saltum, sultum (*I leap*); salient, assail, assault, salmon (*the leaping fish*), insult.
Salus, salutis (*safety*) salute, salutary.
Salvus (*safe*); salvation, saviour.
Sanctus (*holy*); saint, sanctify.
Sanguis (*blood*); sanguinary, sanguine.
Sano (*I make sound*); sanative, sanatory.
Sanus (*sound*); sane, sanity, sanitary.
Sapio (*I taste, am wise*), sapor (*taste*); savour, sapient, insipid.
Satis (*enough*), satur (*full*), satio (*I fill*); satiate, saturate, satisfy.
Scando (*I climb*); scan, ascend, descend.
Scindo, scissum (*I split*); rescind, scissors.
Scio (*I know*); science, prescience, omniscience, conscience.
Scribo, scriptum (*I write*); scribe, describe, scripture, postscript.
Scrupulus (*a little pebble*); scruple.
Scrutor (*I examine*); scrutiny.
Seco, sectum (*I cut*); sect, section, dissect, segment, secant.
Sedeo, sessum (*I sit*), sido (*I set*); session, sedentary, sediment, possess, subside, assiduous, consider.
Semen (*seed*); seminary, disseminate.
Senex (*old-man*); senile, senate.
Sentio (*I feel, think*), sensus (*feeling*); scent, sentence, assent, sense.
Sepelio (*I bury*); sepulture, sepulchre.
Septem (*seven*); September, septennial.
Sequor, secutus (*I follow*), secundus (*following*); sequence, sequel, consequent, persecute, second.
Sero, sertum (*I set in a row*); insert, exert, desert, series, sermon.
Servus (*slave*), servio (*I serve*), servo (*I watch or preserve*); serf, servile, servant, preserve, deserve.
Sidus (*star*); sidereal, consider.
Signum; sign, signal, resign.
Sileo (*I am silent*); silent, silence.
Silva (*wood*). sylvan.
Similis (*like*); similar, assimilate, resemble, simulate.
Simul (*together*); assemble, simultaneous.
Singuli (*one by one*); single, singular.
Sinus (*curve, lap*); sine, sinuous.
Sisto (*I stop, I stand*); consist, insist.
Socius (*companion*); social, society.
Sol (*sun*); solar, solstice.
Solidus; solid, solder.
Solor; con sole, solace.
Solum; soil.
Solus (*alone*); solitude, desolate.
Solvo, solutum (*I loosen*); solve, solution.
Somnus (*sleep*); somnolent. somnambulist.
Sonus; sound, sonorous, consonant.
Sopor (*sleep*); soporific.
Spargo, sparsum (*I strew*); sparse, disperse.
Spatium; space, spacious, expatiate.
Specio, spectum (*I look*). species (*appearance, kind*); special, respect, spectator, despise, suspicion.
Spero (*I hope*); despair, desperate.
Spiro (*I breathe*), spiritus (*breath*); spirit, aspire, conspire.
Splendeo (*I shine*). splendour, splendid.
Spolium; spoil, spoliation.
Spondeo, sponsum (*I promise*); sponsor, respond. despond.
Stella (*star*); stellar, constellation.
Sterno, stratum (*I throw down*); prostrate, consternation.
Stilus (*pen*; style.
Stimulus (*good*); stimulate.
Stirps (*root*); extirpate.
Sto, statum (*I stand*); station, stature, stable, distant, obstacle, armistice, substance.
Statuo (*I set up*); statue, statute.
Stringo, striotum (*I tighten*); stringent, strain, strict, strait.
Struo, structum (*I pile up*); construct, destroy, construe.
Studium (*zeal*); study.
Stupeo (*I am amazed*); stupid.
Suadeo (*I advise*); suasion, persuade.
Sudo (*I sweat*), **sudor**; sudorific, exude.
Sum (*I am*), root *es*, ens (*being*); entity, present. Futurus (*about to be*); future.
Summus (*highest*); sum, summit.
Sumo, sumptum (*I take*); assume, consume consumption.
Super (*above*); superior, supreme.

Surgo (*I rise*); surge, resurrection.

Taceo (*I am silent*); tacit, taciturn.
Tango, tactum (*I touch*); tact, contact, contagion, contiguous, attain, attach.
Tardus (*slow*); retard, tardy.
Tego, tectum (*I cover*); protect, integument.
Temno (*I despise*); contemn.
Tempero (*I moderate*); temperate, temper.
Templum; temple, contemplate.
Tempus (*time*); temporal, temporary, tense.
Tendo, tensum (*I stretch*); contend, intend, tense, tension.
Teneo, tentum (*I hold*); tenant, tenacious, tenour, retain, content, retinue, continuous.
Tento *or* tempto (*I try*); tempt, attempt.
Terminus (*boundary*); term, terminate.
Tero, tritum (*I rub*); trite, contrition.
Terra (*earth*); terrestrial, terrene, inter, terrier, terrace.
Terreo (*I frighten*); terrify, terror, deter.
Testis (*witness*); testify, testimony, attest, detest, protest.
Texo, textum (*I weave*); text, context, texture, textile.
Timeo (*I fear*); timid.
Torqueo, tortum (*I twist*); torsion, contort, torture, torment.
Torreo, tostum (*I parch*); torrid, toast.
Totus (*whole*); total.
Traho, tractum (*I draw*); treat, tract, attract.
Tremo (*I tremble*); tremour, tremendous.
Tres, tria (*three*); trefoil, trident, trinity.
Tribuo (*I assign*); tribute.
Tribus; tribe, tribune.
Trudo, trusum (*I thrust*); extrude, intrusion.
Tuber (*swelling*); tubercle, protuberance.
Tueor (*I protect*); tuition, tutor.
Tumeo (*I swell*); tumid, tumult.
Tundo, tusum (*I thump*); contusion.
Turba (*mob*); turbulent, turbid.
Turpis (*foul*); turpitude.

Uber (*udder*); exuberant.
Ultra (*beyond*), ulterior (*further*), ultimus (*furthest*); ulterior, ultimate, penult.
Umbra (*shade*); umbrage, umbrella.
Uncia (*a twelfth part*); ounce, inch, uncial.
Unguo, unctum (*I anoint*); unguent, ointment, unction.
Unda (*wave*); abound, redound, abundant, inundate, undulate.
Unus (*one*); union, unit, triune, uniform, universe, unique.
Urbs (*city*); urban, suburb.
Urgeo (*I press*); urge, urgent.
Uro, ustum (*I burn*); combustion.
Utor, usus (*I use*); use, utility, usury.

Uxor (*wife*); uxorious.

Vacca (*cow*); vaccination, vaccine.
Vaco (*I am unoccupied*); vacant, vacation, vacate, vacuum, evacuate.
Vagor (*I wander*), vagus (*wandering*); vague, vagrant, vagabond.
Valeo (*I am strong*); valid, valour, value, avail, prevail.
Vallus (*stake*), vallum (*rampart*); circumvallation.
Vanus (*empty*); vain, vanity.
Vapor (*steam*); vapour, evaporate.
Varius; various, variety, variegate.
Vastus; vast, waste, devastate.
Veho, vectum (*I carry*); convey, convex, inveigh, vehicle.
Vello, vulsum (*I pluck*); convulse, revulsion.
Velum (*covering*); veil, reveal, develop.
Vendo (*I sell*); vend, venal.
Venenum (*poison*); venom.
Veneror (*I worship*); venerate, revere.
Venio, ventum (*I come*); convene, venture, convent, prevent, revenue, convenient, covenant.
Venter (*belly*); ventriloquist.
Ventus (*wind*); ventilate.
Verbum (*word*); verb, verbal, proverb.
Verto, versum (*I turn*); verse, version, convert, divorce, adverse, advertise, universe, vortex, vertical.
Verus (*true*); verity, verify, aver.
Vestis (*garment*); vest, vesture, vestry.
Vetus (*old*); inveterate, veteran.
Via (*road*); deviate, pervious, trivial.
Vicinus (*neighbouring*); vicinity.
Vicis (*change*); vicissitude, vicar.
Video, visum (*I see*); visible, vision, provide, revise, visage, prudence, providence, survey, envy.
Vilis (*cheap*); vile, vilify.
Vinco, victum (*I conquer*); victor, vanquish, victim, convince, convict.
Vir (*man*), virtus (*manliness*); virtue, virago, triumvir, virile.
Vis (*force*); violent.
Vita (*life*); vital.
Vitium (*fault*); vice, vicious, vitiate.
Vivo, victum (*I live*); revive, vivify, vivacious, victuals.
Voco (*I call*), vox (*voice*); voice, vocal, vocation, invocate, convoke, vowel.
Volo (*I will*); voluntary, benevolent, volition.
Volvo, volutum (*I roll*); revolve, volume, revolution, voluble.
Voro (*I devour*); voracious, devour.
Voveo, votum (*I vow*); vote, votive, votary, devote, devout.
Vulgus (*common people*); vulgar, divulge.
Vulnus (*wound*); vulnerable.

List of the principal Greek Words Derivatives from which have been adopted into English.

Ἄγγελος (angelos, *messenger*) ; angel, evangelist.
Ἅγιος (*sacred*) ; hagiology.
Ἀγωγή (*leading*) ; synagogue.
Ἀγών (*struggle*) ; agony, antagonist.
Ἀδάμας (*steel*) ; adamant, diamond.
Ἀήρ (*air*) ; aeronaut, aerostation.
Ἄθλον (*contest*) ; athlete, athletic.
Αἰθήρ (*sky*) ; ether, ethereal.
Αἷμα (*blood*) ; haemorrhage.
Αἴνιγμα (*riddle*) ; enigma.
Αἵρεσις (*choice*) ; heresy, heretic.
Αἴσθησις (*perception*) ; aesthetics.
Ἀκαδήμεια ; academy.
Ἀκμή (*point*) ; acme.
Ἀκολουθέω (*I follow*) ; acolyte *or* acolyth.
Ἀκούω (*I hear*) ; acoustics.
Ἀκροάομαι (*I listen*) ; acroamatic.
Ἄκρος (*top*) ; acropolis.
Ἄλλος (*other*) ; allopathy.
Ἀλλήλους (*one another*) ; parallel.
Ἄλφα (*a*) ; alphabet.
Ἀμφί (*on both sides*) ; amphibious, amphitheatre.
Ἄνεμος (*wind*) ; anemometer.
Ἄνθος (*flower*) ; anthology.
Ἄνθραξ (*coal*) ; anthracite.
Ἄνθρωπος (*man*) ; anthropology, philanthropy.
Ἀξίωμα (*claim, demand*) ; axiom.
Ἄρκτος (*bear*) ; arctic.
Ἀριθμός (*number*) ; arithmetic.
Ἄριστος (*best*) ; aristocracy.
Ἁρμονία ; harmony.
Ἀρτηρία ; artery.
Ἀρχή (*rule, beginning*) ; monarch, archangel, architect.
Ἀσκέω (*I exercise*) ; ascetic.
Ἀστήρ (*star*) ; astral, asteroid, astronomy.
Ἄω (*I breathe*) ; asthma, atmosphere.
Αὐτός (*self*) ; autograph, autocrat.
Βάλλω (*I throw*), βολή, βλῆμα ; hyperbole, parable, emblem, symbol.
Βάπτω, βαπτίζω ; baptize.
Βάρβαρος (*not Greek*) ; barbarous.
Βάρος (*weight*) ; barometer.
Βάσις (*treading, support*) ; base, basis.
Βιβλίον (*book*) ; Bible, bibliopole.
Βίος (*life*) ; biography, amphibious
Βλασφημία ; blasphemy.
Βόμβυξ (*silk-worm*) ; bombazine.
Βοτάνη (*grass*) ; botany.
Βρόγχος (*windpipe*) ; bronchitis.
Γῆ (*earth*) ; apogee, geography, geology.
Γάλα (*milk*) ; galaxy.
Γάμος (*marriage*) ; bigamy.
Γαστήρ (*belly*) ; gastric, gastronomy.
Γένος (*race*) ; genealogy.
Γίγας ; giant, gigantic.
Γλῶσσα (*tongue*) ; gloss, glossary.
Γλύφω (*carve*) ; hieroglyphic.
Γνώμων (*pointer*) ; gnomon, physiognomy.
Γράφω (*I write*) ; grammar, telegraph, graphic, paragraph.
Γυμνάζω (*I exercise*) ; gymnastic.
Γυνή (*woman*) ; misogynous.
Δάκτυλος (*finger*) ; dactyl.
Δαίμων (*divinity*) ; demon.
Δεῖγμα (*pointing*) ; paradigm.
Δέκα (*ten*) ; decalogue.
Δένδρον (*tree*) ; dendrology.
Δῆμος (*people*) ; democracy.
Δίαιτα (*way of living*) ; diet.
Διδάσκω (*I teach*) ; didactic.
Δίπλωμα (*anything folded*) ; diploma.
Δόγμα (*opinion*) ; dogma, dogmatic.
Δόξα (*opinion, glory*) ; orthodox, doxology.
Δράω (*I act*) ; drastic, drama.
Δρόμος (*running*) ; hippodrome.
Δύναμις (*power*) ; dynamics, dynasty.
Ἕδρα (*seat*) ; cathedral.
Ἔθνος (*race*) ; ethnic, heathen, ethnology.
Ἔθος (*custom*) ; ethics.
Εἶδος (*form*) ; kaleidoscope, cycloid, &c.
Εἴδωλον (*image*) ; idol, idolatry.
Εἰκών (*image*) ; iconoclast.
Εἰρωνεία (*dissimulation*) ; irony.
Ἐλαστικός (*that may be driven*) ; elastic.
Ἐλεημοσύνη (*pity*) ; eleemosynary.

Ἕλλην (*Greek*); Hellenic.
Ἕν (*one*); hyphen.
Ἔνδον (*within*); endogenous.
Ἔντερα (*entrails*); dysentery.
Ἕξ (*six*); hexagon.
Ἔξω (*outside*); exoteric.
Ἑπτα (*seven*); heptarchy.
Ἔργον (*work*); energy, metallurgy.
Ἐρῆμος (*solitary*); eremite, hermit.
Ἕτερος (*other*); heterodox, heterogeneous.
Ἔτυμος (*true*); etymology.
Εὖ (*well*); eulogy, euphony.
Ἔχω (*I hold*); epoch.
Ζώνη (*girdle*); zone.
Ζῶον, ζῴδιον (*animal*); zoology, zoophyte, zodiac.
Ἡγησις (*leading*); exegesis.
Ἤλεκτρον (*amber*); electricity.
Ἥλιος (*sun*); heliacal, heliotrope.
Ἡμέρα (*day*); ephemeral.
Ἡμι (*half*); hemisphere.
Ἥρως; hero.
Ἠχή, ἠχώ (*sound*); echo, catechize.
Θεάομαι (*I behold*); theatre, theory, theorem.
Θαῦμα (*wonder*); thaumatrope.
Θεός (*God*); theology, theism, enthusiast.
Θερμός (*heat*); thermometer, isothermal.
Θεραπεύω (*I heal*); therapeutics.
Θέσις, θέμα (*placing*); anathema, antithesis, epithet, theme.
Θήκη (*box*); hypothecate, apothecary.
Θυμός (*mind*); enthymeme.
Ἰδέα (*form*); idea.
Ἴδιος (*peculiar*); ἰδιώτης, ἴδίωμα; idiom, idiot, idiosyncrasy.
Ἱερός (*sacred*); hierarch; hieroglyphic.
Ἱλαρός (*cheerful*); hilarity.
Ἵππος (*horse*); Philip, hippopotamus.
Ἶρις; iris, iridescent.
Ἴσος (*equal*); isomorphous, isochronous, isosceles (σκέλος = leg).
Ἱστορία (*investigation*); history, story.
Ἰχθύς (*fish*); ichthyology.
Καλέω (*I call*); ἐκκλησία; ecclesiastic.
Καλός (*beautiful*); κάλλος (*beauty*); calligraphy, calotype, calisthenic.
Καλύπτω (*I hide*); apocalypse.
Καθαρός (*pure*); cathartic.
Κακός (*bad*); cacophonous.
Κανών (*rule*); canon, canonical.
Καυστικός (*burning*); caustic.
Κέντρον (*point*); centre.
Κλίμα (*slope*); climate.
Κλῖμαξ (*ladder*); climax, climacteric.
Κλίνω (*I bend*); incline, enclitic.
Κοινός (*common*); epicene.
Κόγχη (*cockle*); conchology.
Κόσμος (*world*); cosmical, microcosm.
Κομήτης (*long-haired*); comet.
Κρανίον (*skull*); cranium.
Κράτος (*strength*); autocrat, democrat.
Κρίνω (*I judge*); κρίσις, κριτικός; critic, crisis, hypocrisy.
Κρύσταλλος (*ice*); crystal.
Κρύπτω (*I hide*); apocrypha, crypt.
Κύκλος (*circle*); cycle, cycloid, cyclopædia.
Κύλινδρος (*roller*); cylinder.
Κύβος; cube.
Κύων (*dog*); cynic.
Κυριακός (*belonging to the Lord*); church.
Κῶμος (*festivity*); encomium.
Κῶνος; cone.
Λέγω (*say, choose*); eclectic.
Λέξις (*speech*); lexicon, dialect.
Λαμβάνω (*I take*); epilepsy, syllable.
Λείπω (*I leave*); ellipse, eclipse.
Λειχήν; lichen.
Λειτος (*belonging to the people*); liturgy.
Λίθος (*stone*); lithography, lithic.
Λόγος (*speech, reason*); logic, dialogue, syllogism.
Λύρα; lyre, lyric.
Λύω (*loosen*); paralysis.
Μάγος; Magian, magic.
Μακρός (*long*); macrocosm.
Μάθημα (*learning*); mathematics.
Μάρτυς (*witness*); martyr.
Μέλας (*black*); melancholy.
Μέλος (*tune*); melody.
Μέταλλον; metal.
Μέτρον (measure); meter, barometer.
Μήτηρ (*mother*); metropolis.
Μηχανή (*contrivance*); mechanics.
Μιαίνω (*I pollute*); miasma.
Μικρός (*small*); microscope.
Μῖμος (*imitator*); mimic.
Μῖσος (*hatred*); misanthrope.
Μνήμων (*remembering*); mnemonic.

Μόνος (*only*); monarch, monogamy, monotheism.
Μοναχός; monk.
Μορφή (*form*); amorphous.
Μυστηρία; mystery.
Ναῦς (*ship*); nautical, nausea (sea-sickness).
Ναρκόω (*I benumb*); narcotic.
Νεκρός (*dead*); necropolis, necromancy.
Νέος (*new*); neology, neophyte.
Νεῦρον (*string, nerve*); neuralgia.
Νῆσος (*island*); Polynesia.
Νομός (*law*); antinomian, astronomy, gastronomy.
Νόσος (*disease*); nosology.
Ὀβελίσκος; obelisk.
Ὁδός (*way*); exodus, method, period.
Οἶκος (*house*); economy.
Οἴκησις (*dwelling*); **οἰκέω** (*I inhabit*); diocese, oecumenical.
Ὅλος (*whole*); catholic, holocaust.
Ὅμοιος (*like*); homoeopathy.
Ὁμός (*same*); homogeneous.
Ὄνομα, ονυμα (*name*); synonymous, patronymic.
Ὀξύς (*sharp*); oxygen, paroxysm.
Ὀπτικός (*belonging to sight*); optics, synopsis.
Ὁράω (*I see*); panorama.
Ὄργανον (*instrument*); organ.
Ὀρθός (*straight*); orthodox, orthography.
Ὁρίζω (*I define*); horizon, aorist.
Ὄρνις (*bird*); ornithology.
Ὀρφανός; orphan.
Ὀρχήστρα (*dancing-place*); orchestra.
Ὀστέον (*bone*); osteology.
Ὄφις (*serpent*); ophicleide.
Ὀφθαλμός (*eye*); ophthalmia.
Παλαιός (*ancient*); palaeography.
Πᾶν (*all*); pantheism, pantomime.
Πάν (*Pan*); panic.
Πάθος (*suffering, affection*); pathos, sympathy, pathetic.
Παῖς (*boy*); paedagogue.
Πανήγυρις (*assembly*); panegyric.
Παιδεία (*instruction*); cyclopaedia.
Πατέω (*I walk*); peripatetic.
Παῦσις (*stopping*); pause.
Πεῖρα (*trial*); empirical.
Πέντε (*five*); pentagon.
Πεντηκοστός (*fiftieth*); pentecost.
Πέταλον (*leaf*); petal.
Πέτρα (*rock*); petrify, Peter.
Πέπω (*digest*); dyspeptic.
Πλάσσω (*I mould, daub*), **πλαστικός**; plastic, plaster.
Πλανήτης (*wandering*); planet.
Πλήσσω (*strike*); apoplexy.
Ποιέω (*I make*); poet.
Πόλεμος (*war*); polemic.
Πόλος (*bowl, pole*); pole, polar.
Πόλις (*city*); polity, policy, metropolis.
Πολύς (*many*); polygon, polygamy polytheism.
Πομπή (*procession*); pomp, pompous.
Πούς (*foot*); antipodes, tripod.
Πράσσω (*I do*); practice, pragmatical.
Πρεσβύτερος (*elder*); presbyter, prester, priest.
Πρίσμα (*something sawn*); prism.
Πρῶτος (*first*); prototype.
Πτῶμα (*fall*); symptom.
Πῦρ (*fire*); pyrotechnics, empyrean.
Πωλέω (*I sell*); monopoly.
Ῥέω (*I flow*), **ῥευμα**; catarrh, rheum, rheumatic.
Ῥήγνυμι (*I break*); cataract.
Ῥήτωρ (*orator*); rhetoric.
Ῥὶς (*nose*); rhinoceros.
Ῥυθμός (*measured motion*); rhythm.
Σάρξ (*flesh*); sarcophagus.
Σαρκάζω (*I tear the flesh*); sarcastic.
Σβέννυμι (*I extinguish*); asbestos.
Σίφων (*tube*); siphon.
Σῖτος (*food*); parasite.
Σκάνδαλον (*stumbling-block*); scandal.
Σκηνή (*tent, stage*); scene.
Σκῆπτρον (*staff*); sceptre.
Σκοπέω (*I look*), **σκοπός**; episcopal, bishop, scope, telescope, microscope.
Σπάω (*I draw*); spasm.
Σπέρμα (*seed*), **σπορά**; spermatic, sporadic.
Σπεῖρα (*coil*); spire, spiral.
Στάσις (*standing*); apostasy, ecstasy, system.
Στέλλω (*I despatch*); epistle, apostle.
Στενός (*narrow*); stenography.
Στερεός (*solid*); stereoscope, stereotype.
Στίγμα (*brand*); stigma.
Στίχος (*line*); distich, acrostic.
Στρατός (*army*); strategy.

Στροφή (*turning*); catastrophe, apostrophe.
Σῦκον (*fig*); sycophant.
Σφαῖρα (*ball*); sphere.
Σφύζω (*I throb*); asphyxia.
Σχῆμα (*form, make*); scheme.
Σχίζω (*I divide*); schism.
Σχολή (*leisure*); school, scholar.
Ταὐτό (*the same*); tautology.
Τάφος (*tomb*); epitaph.
Τάξις (*arrangement*); syntax.
Τόνος (*stretching, pitch*); tone, tonic, monotony.
Τομή (*cutting*); atom, epitome, entomology.
Τεῦχος (*implement, book*); pentateuch.
Τῆλε (*far off*); telescope, telegraph.
Τόπος (*place*); topography, topic.
Τρόπος (*turning*); tropic, trope.
Τύπος (*shape*); type.
Τύραννος; tyrant.
Ὑγρός (*moist*); hygrometer.
Ὕδωρ (*water*); dropsy, hydrate, hydrostatics, hydrogen, hydrophobia.
Ὕμνος; hymn, anthem.
Ὕπνος (*sleep*); hypnotic.
Ὑστέρα (*womb*); hysteria, hysterical.
Φάγω (*I eat*); sarcophagus.
Φαίνω (*I show*); phenomenon, phantom, phase.
Φάρμακον (*drug*); pharmacy.
Φέρω (*I bear*); phosphorus, metaphor.
Φημί (*I say*); emphasis, prophecy.
Φθογγή (*voice, vowel*); diphthong.
Φθίσις (*wasting*); phthisic.
Φίλος (*fond of*); philosophy, Philip.
Φλέβς (*vein*); phlebotomy.
Φλέγμα (*inflammation, slimy humour*); phlegm.
Φόβος (*fear*) hydrophobia.
Φράγμα (*fence*); diaphragm.
Φράσις (*saying*); phrase.
Φρήν (*mind*); phrenology.
Φύσις (*nature*); physics, physiology.
Φυτόν (*plant*); zoophyte.
Φωνή (*voice*); phonetic, phonography.
Φώς (*light*); photography.
Χάος (*empty space*); chaos.
Χαρακτήρ (*something engraved*); character.
Χάρις (*thanks*); eucharist.
Χείρ (*hand*); chirography, chiromancy.
Χίλιοι (*thousand*); kilogramme.
Χίμαιρα (*a fabulous monster*); chimerical.
Χολή (*bile*); melancholy.
Χόνδρος (*cartilage of the breast*); hypochondriac.
Χορδή (*string*); chord.
Χορός (*dance*); chorus, choir.
Χρόνος (*time*); chronology.
Χρίω (*I anoint*); Christ, Christian.
Χρῶμα (*colour*); achromatic.
Χυμός, χυλός (*juice*); chyme, chyle.
Χῶρος (*place*); chorography.
Ψάλλω (*I play the lyre*); psalm.
Ψεῦδος (*falsehood*); pseudonym.
Ψυχή (*soul*); psychology.
Ὠδή (*song*); ode, monody, parody.
Ὤν, ὄντος (*being*); ontology.
Ὥρα (*hour*); horology, horoscope.
Ὠσμός (*thrusting*); endosmose.

The above list does not include a large number of scientific terms employed in botany, medicine, zoology, &c.

The following table of the Greek alphabet is inserted for the use of those who are unacquainted with the Greek character:—

Α, α = a. Β, β = b. Γ, γ = g. Δ, δ = d. Ε, ε = ĕ. Ζ, ζ = z. Η, η = ē.
Θ, θ = th. Ι, ι = i. Κ, κ = k or c. Λ, λ = l. Μ, μ = m. Ν, ν = n.
Ξ, ξ = x. Ο, ο = ŏ. Π, π = p. Ρ, ρ = r. Σ, σ = s. Τ, τ = t. Υ, υ = u.
Φ, φ = ph. Χ, χ = ch. Ψ, ψ = ps. Ω, ω = ō.

Miscellaneous Words adopted from Foreign Languages.

French.—Beau, belle, bon-mot, bouquet, congé, depot, éclat, ennui, envelope, foible, naïve, environs, etiquette, penchant, picquet, soirée, toilette, trousseau, &c.

Italian.—Akimbo, alarm (all' arme), alert (all' erta, *from Lat.* erectus), ambassador (*ultimately from the Gothic* andbahts, '*servant*'), avast (*It.* basta), bass (*Lat.* bassus, '*fat, squat*'), bassoon, baluster (*vulgarly* banister), balustrade, bandit (*root* 'ban'), bravo, brigade, brigand, brigantine, brocade, bronze, burlesque, bust, cameo, cannon ('*a great tube,*' from *Lat.* canna), canto, canteen, cape (*from* caput), caper (*from Lat.* caper), captain, caravel, caricature ('an exaggeration,' *from* caricare, 'to load'), cartel, cartoon (*Lat.* carta; cartone = *large or thick paper, pasteboard*), charlatan, citadel, companion ('*a comrade,*' *one who shares your bread, from* con *and* panis), concert, concerted (*probably from* concertare), conversazione, cosset (*It.* casiccio, '*a lamb brought up by hand in the house*'), cupola, ditto, dilettante, domino, dram, farrago (*mixed food, from* 'far'), folio, fresco, gabion, gala, gallant, garnet, gazette, granite, gondola, grate, grotto, harlequin, improvisatore, incognito, influenza, inveigle, lava, lupine, macaroni, manifesto, madrigal, mezzotint, motto, opera, paladin, pantaloon, piazza, palette, parapet (*from* petto, '*the breast*'), parasol, pigeon (piccione), pilgrim (pelegrino, *from* peregrinus), pistol, policy (*of insurance,* &c., polizza, *a corruption of* polyptychum, '*a memorandum book of many leaves*'), porcupine (porcospino), portico, proviso, regatta, scaramouch, sketch, soprano, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, terra-cotta, torso, umbrella, virtue, virtuoso, vista, volcano.

Spanish.—Alligator (el lagarto), armada, barricade, battledore (batador), caparison, capon, cargo, caracole (caracol, '*a winding staircase*'), castanets, chocolate, cigar, clarion, clarionet, cochineal, cork, (corcho, *from* cortex), creole, desperado, discard, dismay (desmayar, '*to faint*'), don, duenna, embargo, embarrass, filigree, filibuster, flotilla, grandee, jade (ijada, '*the flanks,*' ijadear, '*to pant*'), javelin (*a boar-spear, from* jabali '*wild boar*'), jennet, lawn (lona, '*transparent texture*'), mulatto, negro, pamphlet (*perhaps from* papelete, '*a note*'), pawn (peone, '*a labourer*'), pedestal, pillion, pint (pinta, '*a mark*'), platinum, punctilio, renegade (*corrupted into* runagate), savannah, sherry (Xeres), tornado, verandah.

Portuguese.—Caste, cocoa, commodore (commendador), fetish, mandarin (mandar, '*to have authority*'), marmalade (marmelo '*quince*'), palaver (*derived from* parabola '*parable*'), porcelain.

Dutch.—Boom, sprit, reef, schooner, skate, sloop, stiver, taffrail, yacht, (jaghten, '*to chase*').

Arabic.—Admiral (*properly* ammiral), alchemy, alcohol (al-kohl, '*the fine powder of antimony*'), alembic, algebra (al-gebr, '*union or combination*'), alkali, almanac, amber, amulet, arrack (araq, '*sweat*'), assassin (*eater of* hashish), azimuth, cadi, caliph, camphor, carat, cipher, coffee, cotton, dragoman, elixir, emir, fakir, gazelle, giraffe, harem, hazard, jar, lute, magazine, mameluke, minaret, monsoon, moslem, mosque, mufti, mummy,

nadir, naphtha, salaam, simoon, sirocco, sofa, sugar, sultan, syrup, talisman, tamarind, vizier, zenith, zero.

Hebrew.—Abbot, amen, behemoth, cabal, cherub, ephod, hallelujah, hosanna, jubilee, leviathan, manna, sabbath, seraph, shibboleth.

Persian.—Azure, balcony, bashaw *or* pasha, bazaar, caravan, checkmate (shahmat, '*king dead*'), chess, dervish, hookah, jackal, lilac, musk, orange, paradise, scimitar, shawl, sherbet, taffeta, turban.

Hindustani.—Buggy, bungalow, calico, chintz, chutnee, coolie, cowrie, curry, jungle, lac, mulligatawny, nabob, pagoda, palanquin, pariah, punch, pundit, rajah, rupee, sepoy, suttee, toddy.

Chinese.—Bohea, caddy, congou, gong, hyson, junk, nankeen, pekoe, tea.

Malay.—Amuck, bamboo, caoutchouc, gutta-percha, orang-outang, sago.

Turkish.—Bey, chibouk, janissary, sash, tulip, seraglio.

Polynesian.—Taboo, tattoo, kangaroo.

North and South American Indian.—Condor, hammock, lama, maize, mocassin, pampas, pemmican, potato, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, tomata, wigwam.

Most of the words in this section will be found in the lists given by Dr. Adams, Dr. Angus, Mr. Bain, &c., and are treated in detail in the best etymological dictionaries, especially those by Wedgwood, Müller, Stormonth, and Skeat.

EXERCISES.

For elementary exercises in Grammar, Parsing, and Analysis, the learner is referred to the author's "**English Grammar Practice,**" which is a reprint of the exercises appended to his "**Shorter English Grammar.**" The fifty sections in which these exercises are arranged are set forth in what follows, with references to the paragraphs of the present work which contain the subject matter of the Preliminary Lessons of each section.

I. Common Nouns and Proper Nouns. Definition of a Noun. Distinction between Common Nouns and Proper Nouns (§§ 31—37).

II. Singular and Plural.—Definition of Number. Modes of forming the Plural (§§ 47—63).

III. Capital Letters.—Use of capital letters (§ 6, *note*).

IV. Verbs, Sentences.—Definition of Verb, Subject, Predicate, Sentence. Use of the Nominative Case. Agreement of the verb with its subject (§§ 68, 180, &c., 343, 354—360, 378—381).

V. The Possessive Case.—Formation and use of the Possessive Case (§§ 71—78).

VI. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs. — Distinction between Transitive Verbs and Intransitive Verbs. The Object of a Verb. The Objective Case (§§ 181, 182).

VII. Verbs used transitively, intransitively, and reflectively.—Verbs used (with a difference of meaning)—1. as transitive verbs; 2. as intransitive verbs; 3. as reflective verbs (§§ 181, 182).

VIII. Words used both as Nouns and as Verbs.—Study the meaning and use of the word *iron* in such sentences as '*Iron* is heavy' and 'The women *iron* the shirts' (§ 27).

IX. The Personal Pronouns. — Forms and use of the Personal Pronouns, and of the Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person. Personal inflexions of verbs (§§ 131—138, 219, 227).

X. Pronouns as Subjects and Objects of Verbs.—Inflexion of verbs to mark Person. Concord of Verb and Subject (§§ 219, 227, 378).

XI. Direct Object and Indirect Object.—Difference between them (§§ 80, 369).

XII. Conjugation of Verbs. Tense Forms of the Active Voice.—Formation of all the tenses in the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice (204—215, 257).

XIII. Tense Forms of the Passive Voice.—(§§ 188, 250, 257.)

XIV. Mutual Relation of the Active and Passive Voices.—When an action is described by means of the Passive Voice instead of the Active, the Object of the verb in the Active Voice becomes the Subject of the verb in the Passive Voice (§§ 186, 187).

XV. Gender of Nouns. — Signification and formation of Genders (§§ 39—46).

XVI. Parsing.—To parse a word you must state—1. To what part of speech and to what subdivision of that part of speech it belongs; 2. What the function of the word is, that is, the kind of work that it does in a sentence; 3. The accidence of the word; 4. The construction of the word in the sentence. **Examples of Parsing.**

XVII. Adjectives of Quality.—Nature and use of Qualitative Adjectives. Attributive and predicative use of Adjectives (§§ 85—87, 90).

XVIII. Adjectives of Quantity.—Nature and use of Quantitative Adjectives (§§ 91—96).

XIX. Demonstrative Adjectives, or Adjectives of Relation.—Nature and use of Demonstrative Adjectives (§ 97).

XX. Comparison of Adjectives.—Study §§ 105—119.

XXI. Parsing of Adjectives.—To parse an Adjective state what sort of adjective it is, in what degree of comparison it is, and to what noun it is attached either attributively or predica-

tively (§§ 89—97, 87, 98). Lastly, state its three degrees of comparison.

XXII. Abstract Nouns.—Nature and formation of Abstract Nouns (§§ 32, 33, *pp.* 130, 135).

XXIII. Adverbs.—Nature and use of Adverbs. Parsing of Adverbs (§§ 261—276, 367, 372).

In what follows the lessons and exercises of the 'English Grammar Practice' are sometimes merely referred to, as in the preceding cases, when they are of a very elementary character, sometimes introduced *in extenso* or with some modifications, as exercises appropriate for the learners for whose use the present work is intended.

XXIV. Nouns used Adverbially.—A noun in the objective case with an adjective or some equivalent phrase, or even standing by itself, often does duty for an adverb. The noun should be parsed as being in the Adverbial Objective, modifying (either singly, or when taken with its adjective) some verb or adjective (§ 372, 1—3).

Parse the nouns in italics in the following sentences :—

He travelled all *night*. Many a *time* have I played with him. I have seen him many *times*. He comes here four *times* a week. That happened a *year* ago. I shall see you next *week*. He slept *all night*. *Day* by day we magnify Thee. He comes bothering me *day* after day. He turned his head another *way*. This is many *degrees* better than that. He is a *year* older than I am. I could not come a *day* sooner. The town is ten *miles* distant. We travelled *day* and *night*. He came forth bound *hand* and *foot*. He arrived *post-haste*.

XXV. Adjectives used Adverbially. — Many adjectives, especially those of Quantity, are used as substantives, it being impossible to supply any particular noun with them. These (like nouns) are often used with an adverbial force (§§ 93, 94, 268, 269).

On the other hand, many adverbs which once ended in *-e* have lost that inflexion, and become identical in form with adjectives.

"*Much has been revealed, but more remains behind.*" Here '*much*' and '*more*' are substantives, the subjects of the verbs that follow them.

"*I do not much admire him.*" "*He is not much happier.*" Here '*much*' is an adverb, modifying (1) a verb, (2) an adjective.

"*He is no better.*" Here '*no*' is an adverb modifying the adverb 'better.'

"*He has not much money; his brother has more.*" Here '*much*' is

an adjective qualifying 'money,' and '*more*' is an adjective qualifying 'money' understood.

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the *adjectives proper*, the *substantival adjectives*, and the *adverbs* :—

I have *enough*. I gave him *all* I had. In *general* I approve of his proceedings. *Much* depends upon his answer He knows *more* than he tells. He told me *less* than his brother. You know *most* about it. I will follow you through *thick* and *thin*. I did my *best*. He is the *best* dressed man in the room. He slept *all* night. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow. He is *all* powerful here. We have *much* cause for thankfulness. *Much* remains to be done. I am *much* happier. He is *more* contented. I could hear *no more*. He is *no** wiser than before. I have *no* ink. He shows but *little* gratitude. We expect not a *little* from him. He is but *little* better. That is a *most* lovely prospect. Nobody *else*† was there. I have not meat *enough*.‡ I have *enough* and to spare.

He is *less* restless than he was yesterday. He ran *all* round the park. You know *best*. Do your *best*. He cut *right* through the helmet. Hear the *right*, O Lord. We have a choice between *good* and *ill*. *Ill* weeds thrive apace. The house is *ill* built. The earth turns *round*. He is *pretty* sure of the prize. He was a *very* thunderbolt of war. You are *very* kind. That is the *very least* you can do. Do not take *more* trouble. He is *more* to blame than I am. You are *very much* in fault. I cannot say *more*. I will take one *more*§ glass. Will you take some‖ *more* wine. I will not take *any more*. Take *no more* trouble. I heard *all*. He sailed *all* round the world. *Enough* has been done. He is *like*¶ my brother. He swore *like* a trooper. I ne'er shall look upon his *like* again. I am your *equal*.

I will accept nothing *less*.** We heard nothing *more* of him. Whoever is *most* diligent will meet with *most* success. He is not *any more* diligent than he was before. I cannot write *any better*. He is a *better* writer than I am. I have heard a *little* about that affair, let me hear *some more*. You must take me for *better* or *worse*. The *more* part knew not wherefore they were come together. *The* more *the* merrier (§ 265, 5). The cry did knock against my *very* heart. I love John *best*.

XXVI. Prepositions. — Nature and use of Prepositions. Relations which they indicate. Words which they join (§§ 277, 278).

XXVII. Adverbs and Prepositions.—The same word is often used both as an adverb and as a preposition (§ 279).

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

He got up *behind*. There is a garden *behind* the house. Do not lag *behind*.

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* 'No,' as an adverb, may be taken as the simple adverb 'na' = never (A.S.).

† 'Else' is always an adverb.

‡ The inflected adjective *genóh* is commonly placed after the noun in A.-Saxon.

§ 'More' is here an adjective, equivalent to *additional* (*p.* 39). When *more* comes after the noun, as in 'one word more,' it should be regarded as an adverb (= 'in addition').

‖ 'Some' is never used as an adverb.

¶ When 'like' denotes *personal* resemblance, it is an adjective. When it denotes that one *action* resembles another, it is an adverb.

** This word is an adjective qualifying the substantive 'nothing,' 'nothing inferior in amount.' The next example is different; 'more' is equivalent to 'further.'

He departed *before* my arrival. I told you all that *before*. Run *round* the table. The earth turns *round*. I rode *inside* the omnibus. He rode *outside*. He ran *after* me. That comes *after*. The box was painted *within* and *without*. She stayed *within* the house. Come *along*. We walked *along* the road. The storm passed *by*. I will come *by* and *by*. He cut a piece *off* the loaf. The stick is too long; cut a piece *off*. "Three thousand ducats we freely cope your courteous pains *withal*."* "Nothing comes amiss, so money come *withal*." "Her cause and yours I'll perfect him *withal*."

Find a dozen words which may be used either as Adverbs or as Prepositions, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

XXVIII. The Infinitive Mood.—A. Nature and use of the Simple Infinitive (§§ 194, 195). **Shall, will, may,** and **do** as notional and as auxiliary verbs (§§ 185, 210, 212, 213). **Must** and **can** are always notional verbs.

Examples.

"*I will never forget you.*"

'**Forget**':—A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (*or* the object of) the verb '*will*.'

"*Thou shalt not steal.*"

'**Steal**' is a Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (or governed by) the verb '*shalt*.'

"*You may go.*"

'**May**' is a defective (notional) verb, in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Plural Number, and the Second Person to agree with its subject 'you.'

'**Go**' is an Intransitive Verb, in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on the verb '*may*.'

"*I shall soon depart.*"

Here '**shall**' is an auxiliary (not a *notional*) verb. The simple infinitive '**depart**' depends upon it in the same manner as in the preceding examples.

"*He will come presently.*"

Here '**will**' is a mere auxiliary of the future tense.

"*You do assist the storm.*" "*Did you hear the rain?*"

In these examples '**do**' and '**did**' are mere auxiliaries.

"*He does this that he may vex me.*"

Here '**may**' is a mere auxiliary of the Subjunctive Mood, and is in the Subjunctive Mood itself.

Parse all the verbs in the following sentences, and specify in the case of the finite verbs whether they are used as notional or as auxiliary verbs:—

We can dance. You may go. I shall stay. I will go with you. You

* 'Withal,' when used as a preposition, never precedes the word which it governs, but is placed at the end of the sentence.

must go directly. He could not reply. He would not come when I called him. He shall not know of it. He will soon return. You need not stay. He durst not go home. I could leap over that wall once. They would keep on making a noise. "You do* assist the storm." The cry did* knock against my very heart. You would not have my help when you might. I cannot do what I will. That boy shall be made to hold his tongue. Does your father know of this? May I come in? Thou shalt not steal. We will never yield to threats. When shall† you see your brother? I did not call yesterday lest I might seem intrusive. He says that he will not come.

B Nature and use of the gerundial infinitive, or infinitive with 'to' (§§ 194, 196).

"*It is useless to make the attempt.*"

'**It**' forms the temporary subject of the verb 'is' (§ 387).

'**To make**' forms the real subject of the verb 'is,' and governs 'attempt' in the objective case.

"*He thinks it better not to come.*" Here 'it' is the *temporary object* of the verb 'thinks,' and the infinitive 'to come' is the *real object.*

"*He ran to meet me.*" Here 'to meet' is used with the force of an adverb modifying the verb 'ran.'

Parse the verbs in italics and the word 'it' in the following sentences :—

To obey is better than sacrifice. *It* is useless *to ask* him. We found *it* advisable *to return*. He hopes *to hear* from you soon. He came *to pay* me some money. He did his best *to ruin* me. I am delighted *to see*‡ you. He is anxious *to do*‡ his duty. The water is not fit *to drink*.‡ I am happy *to find*‡ you so much better. They are come *to stay* with us. I shall be sorry *to leave*.‡ He is too clever *to make*‡ such a mistake. The boys had a long task *to do*. I was not prepared *to hear* that news. The master called the boy *to say* his lesson. He was rude enough *to contradict*‡ me. Help me *to carry* this.

XXIX. Gerunds and Participles.—Study §§ 197—202.

Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Abstract Nouns in *-ing;* two lines under the Gerunds ; three lines under the imperfect (Active) participles, and then parse all the words in *-ing* :—

Seeing § is believing. He went to see the hunting of the snark. I see a man riding on horseback. I like reading history. The excessive reading of novels is injurious. A lying witness ought to be punished. In keeping Thy commandments there is great reward. His conduct is in keeping with his professions. We arrived there first through taking a short cut. We fell in

* When 'do' is a mere auxiliary (whether emphatic or unemphatic) it may be parsed separately, or else taken with the dependent infinitive, and the compound form may be parsed in the same way as the simple tense for which it is a substitute. Thus: 'Did knock' may be treated as equivalent to 'knocked.' See the preceding examples.

† See § 211.

‡ In these cases the gerundial infinitive does the work of an adverb, and modifies the preceding adjective. Sometimes it expresses the *cause* of the state denoted by the adjective.

§ When the verbal noun in *-ing* does not govern an object it may be treated as a simple abstract noun.

with a ship sailing to America. He is delighted at having succeeded* in his design. We were late in consequence of having lost * our way. No good can come of your doing that. Oblige me by all leaving the room. On some opposition being made he withdrew his demand. I lay a thinking.† Forty and six years was this temple in building. We started before the rising of the sun. Quitting the forest, we advanced into the open plain. There was a great deal of shouting and clapping of hands. My noble partner you greet with great prediction of noble having. By the pricking of my thumbs, something wicked this way comes. He died in consequence of pricking his hand with a poisoned dagger. He strode up the hall bowing right and left to his guests. "You do draw my spirits from me with new lamenting‡ ancient oversights" (*Shaksp.*).

XXX. Parsing of Participles.—Participles proper. Participles used as ordinary Qualitative Adjectives. Participles used absolutely (§§ 201; 202; 282; 370, 5).

Parse the Participles in the following sentences :—

Hope deferred maketh the heart sick. He bought a deferred annuity. Smiling scornfully, he strode into the circle. Look at that smiling villain. Generally speaking he dines at home. Considering your age, you have done very well. I caught sight of the thief climbing in at the window. Accoutred as I was, I plunged in. Being apprised of our approach, the whole neighbourhood came out to meet their minister, dressed in their fine clothes, and preceded by a pipe and tabor. The general rode in front, mounted on a splendid charger. Barring accidents, we will be with you to-morrow.

Study § 216, and separate the following sentences into two groups, one containing those in which the verb *be* and the perfect participle form a tense of the passive voice,§ the other containing those in which the participle is a mere qualitative adjective :—

The ship was built by contract. The ship was built of iron. He was stretched upon the rack. The string is stretched too tight. The captives were already slain. They were slain by order of the captain. The poor man is badly hurt. The poor man was hurt. The troops were surprised by the enemy. I was surprised by his behaviour. I am surprised that you do not see that.

XXXI. Interrogative and Negative Sentences.

XXXII. Imperative Sentences.—Study § 191.

"*Let me see that.*"

'**Let**' is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, Imperative Mood, and in the second person plural, to agree with its subject 'you' understood.‖

* This must be treated as a compound gerund. It is impossible to construct the abstract noun in *-ing* with a past participle.

† Here 'a' is a preposition (= at *or* in). 'Thinking' had better be taken in such constructions as the Abstract Noun in *-ing*.

‡ There is here a confusion between the Abstract Noun and the Gerund.

§ In these we get a statement of the *actual doing* of a certain act, in the second class we get a statement of the results of the act.

‖ 'You' is always a ***grammatical*** plural.

'**See**' is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on the verb 'let,' and forming an indirect predicate to 'me' (§ 397).

'**Me**' is in the objective case, governed by 'let,' and forming the subject of the indirect predicate 'see,' the whole phrase 'me see that' being the object of 'let.'

Parse all the words in the following sentences:—

Let me go. Come hither, boys.* Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar. Let him see it. Let us be spared this annoyance. Let us pray. Let me be cautious in the business. Do be quiet, boys.

XXXIII. Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns.—Study §§ 151—164, 412, 465—470.

The construction of a relative clause is word for word the same as that of the clause which results when a demonstrative pronoun, or the antecedent noun is substituted for the relative. Thus, 'Whom you met' is like 'you met him.'

Parse all the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences, and test the construction by substituting demonstratives for the relatives as in the above examples:—

The man whom you met is my brother. The artist who painted that picture died last year. I never saw the man whom you speak of. Where is the pen which I gave you? I who am poorer than you are, am contented. We who are well off should pity and help the poor. The boys whose work is finished may go out to play. He that is down need fear no fall. You have not brought me the volume that I asked for. He is the very man that I was speaking of. Their sorrows shall be multiplied that hasten after another God. It is that that grieves me. "Why, Harry, do I tell thee of my foes, which art my near'st and dearest enemy?" "Whosoever hath, to him shall be given." "Blessed is he whosoever shall not be offended in Me." He doth sin that doth belie the dead. Whose hatred is covered by deceit, his wickedness shall be showed before the whole congregation. They are but faint-hearted whose courage fails in time of danger.

State clearly what '*which*' stands for in the following sentences:—

He promised to follow my advice, which was the best thing he could do. We studied hard all the morning, after which we went for a walk. "And, which is more than all these boasts can be, I am beloved of Hermia." "I see thee still, and on thy blade and dudgeon gouts of blood, which was not so before." "Thou didst smile, which raised in me an undergoing stomach (*i.e.*, *courage to endure*)."

Supply (and parse) the relative pronouns which are omitted in the following sentences:—

Pay me the money you owe me. You have not sent the goods I bought yesterday. Have you received the money I sent you? That is the place I went to. You are the very man I was looking for. "I have a mind presages me such thrift, that I should questionless be fortunate." That is not the way I came. Those are the very words he used. Is the task I set you finished yet? He is not the man I expected.

* Parse 'boys' as a Vocative, or Nominative of Address.

Supply the antecedents which are understood in the following examples:—

Who steals my purse, steals trash. Whom we raise we will make fast. I may neither choose whom I would, nor refuse whom I dislike. Whoever said that, told a falsehood. "Whosesoever sins ye remit, they are remitted." I dread what * is coming. I hear what you are saying. I cannot consent to † what you ask. You have not done what you promised. Have you found who you were looking for? What pleases you will please me.

XXXIV. Relative (or Conjunctive) Adverbs.—Study §§ 262—265.

Conjunctive adverbs modify a verb, adjective, or adverb in the clause which they introduce, and join that clause to the predicate of the principal clause.

Parse the conjunctive adverbs in the following sentences:—

I was not at home when you called. I shall see you when I return. He still lay where he had fallen. I will follow you whithersoever you go. This is the house where I live. Tell me the reason why you left the room. Go back to the place whence you came. Show me the shop where you bought that. Wherever he lives, he will be happy. I go to see him whenever I can.

XXXV. Conjunctions.—Study the definition and classification of Conjunctions (§§ 285—292).

Parse the conjunctions in the following sentences:—

A. He is poor, but he is contented. He neither came nor sent an excuse. He went out quickly and slammed the door. He shot a hare and two rabbits. Both John and Henry came to see me I will both lay me down in peace and [I will] sleep. Either I am mistaken, or you are. I can neither eat nor [can I] sleep.

B. You will be punished if you do that. If I had seen him, I would have spoken to him. He would not help me, though he knew that I was in need. Though hand join hand in hand, the wicked shall not be unpunished. You will lose the prize unless you work harder. Take heed lest you fall. I cannot give you any money, for I have none. My brother is taller than you are. He comes oftener than [he] ever [came].

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences:—

John arrived *after* his brother. Do not go *before* I come. We left *after* the concert was over. *Since* you say so, I must believe it. He has not smiled *since* his son died. We have not eaten *since* yesterday. They will go away *before* night. I will wait *until* you return. All except John were present. *Except* ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.

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* Parse '*what*' as a neuter Relative Pronoun relating to a suppressed antecedent, whenever the sense of the sentence remains the same if '*that which*' is substituted for '*what*.'

† Mind that this preposition does not govern 'what' (which is the object of to 'ask'), but its suppressed antecedent 'that.'

Parse the word '*that*' wherever it occurs in the following sentences. (Look at §§ 145, 146, 152, 290.)

Show me that picture. He did not say that. He is the very man that I want. He says that we shall never succeed. He does that that he may vex me. They that will be rich fall into temptation. There is not a man here that I can trust. I lent you that book that you might read it. I hear that he has lost that book that I lent him. You ought to know that that '*that*' * that you see at the beginning of the clause is a conjunction, because I told you that before.

XXXVI. The Subjunctive Mood.—Nature and use of the Subjunctive Mood (§§ 192, &c., 422—440, 487).

Parse the verbs in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the moods:—

You *may* † go. He says that that he *may vex* me. The old man *might* be seen daily sitting in the porch. He came that he *might beg* money of me. He *may* ‡ have been in the house, but I did not see him. He *would be* angry if he *knew* of it. I *had* just *finished* when you *came* in. "*Had* I but *died* an hour before this chance, I *had lived* a blessed time." He *would* not open the door when I *knocked*. He *would open* the door if you *knocked*. He *would have opened* the door if you *had knocked*. You *should*§ *not tell* lies. If he *did* that he *deserves* to be punished. If he *had done* it, he *would have confessed* it. If he *did* it, he *would* seriously *displease* me. If he *were* to make such a reply it *would be* very foolish. If he *had heard* the news, he *kept* it all to himself. If he *had heard* the news, he *would* not *have kept* it to himself. He *could* not do that if he *tried*. He *could* not do it when he *tried*. You *might have won* the prize if you *had been* more diligent.

XXXVII. Apposition.‖—(§ 362, 2).

XXXVIII. Attributive Adjuncts.—(§§ 362—366).

Point out the attributive adjuncts in the following examples, and in each case state of what they consist, and to what they are attached:—

John's coat is seedy. My cousin Henry died last week. I see a man walking in the garden. My brother Tom's pony is lame. A man clothed in a long white robe came up to me. We soon reached the top of the mountain. The prisoner's guilt is manifest. The friends of the prisoner are very rich. Fearing to be caught in the rain, we returned. This is no time for trifling. I saw a house to let further on. Whose hat did you take? I borrowed William's big two-bladed knife. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. He obtained permission to go. Give me now leave to leave thee. His right to the property was disputed.

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* See § 385.

† 'May,' 'would,' &c., in the indicative mood must be parsed as *notional*, not as *auxiliary* verbs. See Section XXVIII.

‡ That is, 'it *is* possible that he was in the house.'

§ This use of 'should' is peculiar. It is past in form, referring to present time, and yet it is indicative. It follows the analogy of 'ought' and the other preterite-present verbs.

‖ One noun in the possessive is never put in apposition to another, but the two nouns are treated as a *single compound name*. In "My brother William's dog," 'my brother William's' must be parsed as a compound proper noun, in the possessive case, depending on 'dog.'

XXXIX. Adverbial Adjuncts.— Nature and classification of Adverbial Adjuncts (§§ 371, 372).

Point out the adverbial adjuncts in the following sentences; state of what they consist, and to what verb, adjective or adverb they are attached:—

They will be here to-night. He prayed for a speedy deliverance. I am much displeased with your conduct. He is not like his sister. He accompanied us most of the way. You are to come home directly. He approached me dagger in hand. He built a wall ten feet thick. There is a church a mile distant from the town. I am not disposed to sell the horse. On reaching home we found that the rest had arrived before us. We were all talking of the accident. Wait a bit. We had nothing to do. What is the matter with you? He is too ready to take offence. We are glad to see you. Why did you say that? Where were you on duty last night? My object having been attained, I am satisfied. To reign is worth ambition. The cloth is worth a guinea a yard. He is a year older than I am.

In the following examples show which of the phrases made up of a preposition and a noun do the work of an adjective (see § 362, 4), i.e. are *attributive* adjuncts, and which do the work of an adverb (see § 372, 4), that is, are *adverbial* adjuncts; and show to what word each is attached.

What is the use of all this fuss about the matter? I am delighted to see you in good health. The advantages of travelling in foreign countries are very great. He is a man of great industry. He accomplished the task by unflagging industry. A man addicted to self-indulgence will not rise to greatness. That is a good stream for angling. I am fond of the pastime of angling. We rely on your promise. Reliance on his promises is useless. Do your duty to him. What is my duty to my neighbour? He adhered to his determination to make the attempt. He is too feeble to make the attempt. He gave him his best wine to drink. The place abounds in good water to drink. The master praised the boy at the top of the class. He shouted to the boys at the top of his voice.

XL. Parsing of Adverbial Adjuncts.—(See §§ 370—372).

XLI. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

I. Simple Sentences. — Nature of a simple sentence. Difference between the *logical* Subject and Predicate, and the *grammatical* Subject and Predicate (§§ 400, 501, &c.).

Divide the following sentences into the logical subject, and the logical predicate:—

The children, tired with play, came indoors. The friends of that little boy have sent him to sea. A rich old uncle has left him a large estate in Yorkshire. The horse, terrified by the lightning, ran away at full speed.

Questions may be divided in a similar manner. The construction will sometimes be clearer in the primary division, if the predicate be

put first. Thus, "When will your brother return to town?" may be divided. *Pred.* 'When will return to town?' *Subj.* 'Your brother.'

Divide the following sentences in a similar way:—

Does your uncle the doctor know of this? Went not my spirit with thee? Whence did the author of that book get his materials? Who in the world told you that? Why did you send the poor man away? How many shillings have you in your purse?

Take the following sentences and put with the subject in each the *whole of the verb* that belongs to it, without the other words:—

I shall most likely hear from you to-morrow. I have been all the morning trying to make out this problem. You will by these very simple means stop his proceedings. He is of all enchantingly beloved. He has in the most unfair manner been deprived of his rights.

Take the following sentences * and separate the logical subject in each into the grammatical subject and its adjuncts in the way shown in § 501:—

(My) (poor) (little) brother has hurt himself. (The) (impudent) fellow (not being satisfied with my alms) began to abuse me. (My poor little brother's) (pet) bird was shot. (This) law (the disgrace of our statute book) was repealed. (The) (Chubb's) (patent) lock (to my desk) has been picked. (Disgusted † by so many acts of baseness) (the man's) friends (all) deserted him.

The brave soldiers of the garrison died at their posts. A rich old uncle left him his property. A horseman, wrapped in a huge cloak, entered the yard. The handle of the pump in the yard is broken. John's account of the affair alarmed me. Which boy knows his lessons? What poet's works please you most?

Make (or find) a dozen sentences in which the grammatical subject is enlarged (see § 388), and state in each case of what the enlargement consists.

Set down separately the object of the verb in each of the following sentences and the several attributive adjuncts of the object:—

He told us a droll story about his brother. Have you read this author's last work? Whom did you see at the concert? I saw a soldier on horseback. ‡

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* In the first few sentences the words or groups of words forming separate adjuncts are enclosed in brackets.

† The *grammatical form* of a sentence often lags behind its *logical import*. Thus, an *independent* sentence beginning with a demonstrative often occurs where the sense implies grammatical connection, as "I believed, *therefore* have I spoken." 'Therefore' is not a conjunction, but a demonstrative adverb, meaning 'for that reason.' So participles and participial phrases are (grammatically speaking) *attributive adjuncts;* and yet they often involve an *adverbial force;* as here, 'because he despaired of success,' and 'because they were disgusted.' Adjectives may be used in the same way. 'Afraid of being betrayed into an ambuscade, the leader halted.' *Grammatically* you can make nothing of 'afraid' but an adjective, though the same notion of *because* clings to the expression. So in Milton, "His meek aspect, *silent*, yet sp ke." Here 'silent' means 'although it was silent,' but grammatically it is nothing more than an *adjective*. In analysis and parsing *grammatical form* is the essential thing. The point in question has nothing to do with any 'servile imitation of Latin Grammar, or any confusion between participles and verbal nouns.

‡ Observe that this phrase does not show where the act of seeing took place. Contrast this sentence with the next.

I met some gipsies in my ramble. The master praised the boy at the top of the class. The man struck the poor little boy on the head. He sent his hat round to collect contributions. They shook the depths of the desert gloom with their hymns of holy cheer. He had the impudence to tell me to hold my tongue.

Give the complete analysis of the following sentences:—

Every finite verb in a sentence has a subject. My brother Henry told me * that. I saw the occurrence through a gap in the wall. That lazy boy did not go out of doors all the morning. Have † those little boys finished their Latin exercises during my absence? Crying will not help you out of the difficulty. To do this properly requires time. Whom did you hear at church this morning? Hoping to find an easier road, we left our companions at the bridge. How ‡ did you find your way? Considering his age he has done pretty well at the examination. How § much money will be enough for you? What foolish notion possesses you? A large dog's bark was heard in the distance. An empty bird's nest was found. The tall lady's dress was torn. Some ladies' silk dresses were sold by auction. Here shall be done a deed of dreadful note. We had a purpose to be his purveyor. We have bought a pretty little calf a month old. His wrath may find some worse way to our destruction. What more do you desire? Whose umbrella did you take? Whose exercise has the fewest faults? He fell head foremost into the river. "Take thee * that too." I told you * all that an hour ago.‖ He died a happy death.¶ There lay Duncan, his silver skin laced with his golden blood. The poor wren will fight, her young ones in her nest, against the owl. Forth at your eyes, your spirits wildly peep. Who ever experienced anything like kindness at his hands? Who but a fool would talk like that? What arrant nonsense that foolish man talks! Which [horse] of these horses is to be sold? He eats his food ** like a hog. He was taught Greek (§ 370) by his uncle. 'Teach me thy statutes.' 'Teach erring man †† to spurn the rage of gain.'

Take the following pairs of subjects and verbs and build up sentences by putting in objects, where they are wanted, and enlarging the subjects, predicates, and objects, with as many adjuncts, attributive and adverbial, as you can. Thus, from 'Men rob,' you may make 'Men of weak character, led astray by temptation, sometimes rob their unsuspecting friends shamefully.'

Birds build. Ship carries. Boy lost. Loaf was bought. Brother left. Sister came. Children went. Men found. We arrived. Man struck. Horse threw.

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* Look at §§ 369, 372, *a*.

† In questions the subject is often so placed as to break the predicate (when it is a compound form of the verb) into two parts. To see the construction properly, give the *complete answer* to the question.

‡ Remember that 'how' is an adverb.

§ Take care in the analysis not to separate attributive words from the adverbial adjuncts that may be attached to them.

‖ 'Ago' is a shortened form of 'agone.' The phrase originally formed a nominative (or objective) absolute.

¶ Look at § 372, 3.

** 'Like' is here an adverb.

†† Here 'man' had better be taken as the direct object, 'teach' having the same kind of sense as 'train' or 'instruct.'

XLII. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.—Nature and construction of Verbs of Incomplete Predication (§§ 391—396). Mode of analysing sentences in which they occur (§§ 509—513, 515—519).

Analyse the following sentences containing Subjective Complements of verbs of Incomplete Predication :—

He is an honest man. He became very rich in a short time. He was called an enthusiast by his friends. He is considered a pretty good player. We got quite tired. The wine tastes sweet. She looks very pretty. That appears very plausible. He stood silent (see § 391). The dog ran away howling. He felt tired. The air feels keen. He stood rubbing his eyes. The boys rushed shouting into the playground. I am sure of pleasing you in this. He is believed to be mad. This kind of life is not to be endured.

The verb *to be* is a verb of incomplete predication when it is employed in making a compound tense of a verb in either the active or the passive voice, as 'He is going'; 'I was saying'; 'He is gone'; 'He was struck.' But when used to form a tense of another verb, it is usually called an *Auxiliary Verb.* In such cases the compound form denotes the performance, the continuance, or the completion of an action. When *the state that is the result of the action* is denoted, the participle that follows is merely an adjective of quality. When it is not accompanied by a complement of some sort, *to be* is a verb of *complete predication*, or (as it is sometimes called) the 'verb of *existence.*' (*N.B.*—An adverb or adverbial phrase is not a complement.)

Point out carefully the various uses of the verb in the following examples :—

He is in the parlour. He is going away. Such things have been. The time has been, that when the brains were out, the man would die. We are ready. I am in doubt about that. The boy was blamed for that. The poor man was starved to death. The children are half starved. He was wounded by an arrow. The poor soldier is badly wounded. I am trying to do it. This delay is trying to our patience. I am delighted to see you. We were delighted by the concert. He is named John. He was called a fool for his pains. Where are you? Where have you been all the morning?

Analyse the following sentences containing Objective Complements* of verbs of incomplete predication (§ 395) :—

He painted the wall white. He made us all merry. They made Henry king. He called the man a liar. You have made your hands dirty. This measure rendered the plot abortive. He set the audience laughing. The people elected Washington president. The king appointed him commander in chief. The thunder has turned the milk sour. The cat has licked the plate clean. Shame has struck him dumb. The retreating tide left the ship high and dry. The architect has constructed the ceilings too low. They dug the trench wider and deeper. They raised the walls higher. The careless boys left the gate wide open.

* This exercise, as it appears in the 'English Grammar Practice,' contains some sentences which should be classed with those dealt with in the next paragraph containing indirect predicates attached to nouns.

Analyse the following sentences, in which the subjective complement is a verb in the infinitive mood (§ 394). Show where the complementary infinitive has itself a complement. These secondary complements, as well as the primary ones, are in the predicative relation to the subject. Do not confound the *object* of a verb with its complement.

He is believed to have perished. They are supposed to have lost their way. He is thought to have poisoned the man. He is believed to be mad. That step was considered to be very imprudent. He was ordered to sit down. He was bidden to stand aside. This kind of life is not to be endured.

Analyse the following sentences containing Infinitive Complements. (See § 396.) Show carefully whether adverbial adjuncts are to be attached to the verb of incomplete predication, or to its complement. (See § 502.)

They can write well. We can sing. They may depart. We must make haste. You shall be rewarded. I will be answered. I must go home. I cannot hear you. They may take the money. I will return shortly. They shall have a good scolding. That cannot be allowed. Nothing could be more unfortunate. You might have found an easier way. I do so long to see him. Indeed I did not say so. He ought to pay me. He ought not to do this. You ought to be more cautious. That may perhaps be true.

XLIII. Complex Objective Phrases.—Study § 397 and the note to § 395; §§ 520—528.

Analyse the following sentences containing indirect predicates:—

He heard the wind roar through the trees. We saw the thief trying to pick a gentleman's pocket. I wish you to come to-morrow. I believe the man to be innocent. I felt the air fan my cheek. Have you ever known the man confess being in fault? I like a knave to meet with his deserts. I expected the travellers to be here by this time. It is too late for the travellers to arrive to-night. The task was too difficult for him to hope to succeed.

Analyse the following sentences, carefully distinguishing those cases in which a verb is followed by a *complement* or an indirect predicate from those in which it is followed by an *adverbial adjunct*. See whether the word in question denotes the *condition* of that which is spoken about, or the *manner* in which an action is done.

That looks pretty. The bell sounds cracked. He spoke loud. The cry sounded clear and shrill. His voice sounded feebly. Her voice sounded feeble. He has travelled far and wide. They have not made the street wide enough. The people wept sore. It grieved me sore. The stones have made my feet sore. He rubbed his face hard. He rubbed his face sore. Her voice sounds clear. The ship passed clear of the rock. The trees whispered soft and low. The whisper came soft and low to our ears. He made his horse canter. He bade the man wait. He ordered the man to wait. He asked me to come. They urged us to come. He saw the deed done. He heard the bone snap. They may depart. You shall be rewarded. You might have found an easier way. We must go home. He was ordered to sit down.

XLIV. Complex Sentences. Substantive Clauses.—Nature, form, and structure of substantive clauses (§§ 403—407, 539—555).

Analyse the following sentences in the mode indicated in § 539, &c.

When 'it' is employed as a temporary, or provisional subject, set it down as such, and place after it the substantive clause as the real subject. Analyse the substantive clauses separately:—

A. (See §§ 542—545.) That he did the deed is quite certain. Who can have told you that, puzzles me. How long I shall stay here is uncertain. What we are to do next is the question. How I found the matter out is no concern of yours. What signifies what weather we have?

It is very probable that he will not arrive to-day. It does not matter what he thinks. It is uncertain how long I shall stay. It is uncertain what the result will be. It is not true that he said so.

Thence it is that I to your assistance do make love. What does it signify how rich he is? It is a question how far he was justified in that proceeding.

Methinks I know that handwriting. Anon methought the wood began to move. Methinks he hath no drowning mark upon him. It was only yesterday that I saw him. Was it on Tuesday that he went away?

B. (See §§ 546—549.) I knew that he would come. I think I have the honour of addressing Mr. Smith? Tell me how old you are. I want to know when this happened. I thought it* strange that he should leave without calling on me. I swear I have no mind of feasting forth to-night. Tell me what you think of all this. Advise if† this be worth attempting. I am hopeful that he will soon get better. He is confident that I shall succeed. He made it a condition that I should become security for the payment. He felt it to be a disgrace that he had so utterly failed. Tell me who told you. Tell him I cannot see him to-day. Try if you can decipher that letter. I fear thou play'dst most foully for it. We are resolved that that shall not occur again. Try how far you can jump.

C. (See §§ 550—555.) The fact that you say so is enough for me. He did this to the end that he might convince me. I undertook the business in the expectation that he would help me. In case you should see him, bring him with you. I came on the chance that I might find you at home. There was a rumour that the army had been defeated. Oh! yet I do repent me of my fury that I did kill them. For that I love your daughter, I must advance the colours of my love. That depends upon how you did it. I would not believe the story but that you avouch it. I hate him for he is a Christian, but more for that in low simplicity he lends out money gratis. Provided this report be confirmed, we shall know what to do. He sent me word that he would come anon. The circumstance that he was present must not be disregarded. In case I am not there, go on without me.

Analyse the following sentences (see § 406):—

I see no sign that the fever is abating. That is a proof that he knows nothing about the matter. We welcomed these indications that spring was near. He has obtained my consent that he should go to college. There is no fear that he will fail.

Analyse the following sentences, in which the Substantive Clause forms an Adverbial Adjunct to a verb or adjective (like the Latin *accusative of limitation*, or *closer definition*):—

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* 'It' often does duty as a temporary or provisional *object*. Deal with it as in the case of the subject; that is, first analyse the sentence without the substantive clause, and then substitute that clause for the 'it'

† 'If' has here the force of 'whether.'

I am sorry that you are not well.* We are glad that you have come at last. I am certain that he never said so. He is desirous that I should return. I am persuaded that that is the wiser course. We are disappointed that you have not brought your brother.

XLV. Adjective Clauses.—Nature, form, and construction of Adjective Clauses (§§ 408—413; 556—562).

Underline the adjective clauses in each of the following sentences, then analyse the entire sentence, and lastly, analyse the adjective clause separately:—

The serpent that did sting thy father's life, now wears his crown. I could a tale unfold whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul. The rest (*i.e.*, 'repose') is labour which is not used for you. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just. Infected be the air whereon they ride. Thy food shall be husks wherein the acorn cradled. What sad talk was that wherewith my brother held you in the cloister? I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows. Thou speak'st to such a man that is no fleering tell-tale. Unto bad causes swear such creatures as † men doubt. You will soon find such peace which it is not in the power of the world to give. You are welcome to my help, such as † it is. I have not from your eyes that gentleness and show of love as † I was wont to have. In me thou seest the twilight of such day, as † after sunset fadeth in the west.

I will show you the shop where I bought these apples. The reason why you cannot succeed is evident. I can remember the time when there were no houses here. The fortress whither the defeated troops had fled was soon captured.

It was John who said so.‡ It was the owl that shrieked.§ Who was it that thus cried? Is this a dagger which‖ I see before me, the handle towards my hand? Was that your brother who knocked at the door?

Analyse the following sentences (see § 410):—

You have only told me what I know already. I know what you said about me. Go, and find out what is the matter. Do what you can in this business. He soon repented of what he had done. He knows well enough what he ought to do. That is precisely what he ought to have done. I cannot make out what you are saying. I do not understand what you are saying.

Whom we raise we will make fast. I could not make out whom he was alluding to. That is where ¶ I live. Tell me where you live. Tell me why you are so angry. That is why ¶ I am angry. I do not know when they will arrive. I knew when ¶ seven justices could not take up a quarrel. I have seen when, ¶ after execution, judgment hath repented o'er his doom. See where ¶ he looks out of the window. That is how ** he always treats me. That is why I did it.

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* See § 549, 2.
† See § 365.
‡ That is, "It (the person) who said so, was John."
§ That is. "It (the creature) that shrieked, was the owl."
‖ The adjective clause 'which hand' is attached to 'this.' 'The handle towards my hand' is a nominative absolute belonging to the adjective clause.
¶ In the analysis supply an antecedent noun
** 'How,' as a relative, never has an antecedent *expressed*.

Analyse the following sentences, treating the clauses containing a relative as independent sentences (see § 412):—

I the matter will re-word, which madness would gambol from. We travelled together as far as Paris, where we parted company. This modest stone, what few vain marbles can, May truly say, 'Here lies an honest man.' By this time we had traversed half the distance, when a loud clap of thunder warned us to quicken our steps. Honourable ladies sought my love, which I denying,* they fell sick and died.

XLVI. Adverbial Sentences.—Nature, form, and structure of Adverbial Clauses (§§ 414—442, 563—571).

Analyse (and parse) the following sentences, after first underlining the Adverbial Clauses, and then analyse these clauses separately† :—

A. (See § 416.) I will tell you the secret‡ when I see you. When you durst do it, then you were a man. I did not know that till you told me. What signifies a-k.ng, when there's not a soul to give you an answer? I'll charm the air to give a sound while you perform your antic round. He arrived after we had left. I shall be gone before you are up. You may come whenever you please.

B. (See § 417.) Where thou dwellest, I will dwell. Wherever you go, I will follow you. There,§ where a few torn shrubs the place disclose, the village preacher's modest mansion rose.

C. (See §§ 418 - 420.) As the tree falls, so‖ it will lie. He is as¶ avaricious as his brother is generous. The** higher you climb, the wider will be the prospect. The more he has, the more he wants. How†† far the substance of my praise doth wrong this shadow, so far this shadow doth limp behind the substance. How a bright star shooteth from the sky, so glides he in the night from Venus' eye.

D. (See §§ 421 - 423.) I cannot tell you his age for I do not know it. Because Th u hast been my help, therefore in the shadow of Thy wings will I rejoice. Since you say so, I must believe it. When I am determined I always listen to reason, because then it can do no harm.

He toils hard that he may get rich. I called on him that I might tell him about that matter Take care that all be ready. Take heed lest ye fall into temptation.

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* We have here a nominative absolute, forming an adverbial adjunct to *fell*. 'Which is the object of 'denying.'

† Remember that the conjunction or pronominal adverbs *when*, *where*, *whither*, &c., have an *adverbial* construction in their own clauses, but that the Conjunctions *after*, *before*, *till*, *while*, &c., have no such force.

‡ In parsing a sentence of this kind, 'when' should be described as a connective adverb, modifying the verb 'see,' and joining the clause 'when I see you' to the predicate 'will tell.'

§ 'There' and the clause 'where—disclose' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'rose.'

‖ 'So' and the clause 'as the tree falls' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'will lie.'

¶ The first 'as' is demonstrative, the second relative. Each modifies the adjective in its clause.

** Here the main clause is the second one. The first 'the' is relative, the second demonstrative. (See § 420.) The first modifies 'higher,' the second modifies 'wider.' The second 'the' and the adverbial clause are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'wider,' the clause explaining the indefinite meaning of 'the.'

†† 'How' is a relative or connective adverb modifying 'far,' and joining the adverbial clause (which is co-ordinate with 'so') to the second 'far.'

I am so * tired that I am ready to drop. He is such a liar that nobody believes him.

E. (See §§ 424—442.) If you call you will see him. I would have called on you, if I had known your address. You will not succeed unless you try harder. I will not come unless you invite me. Except ye repent ye shall all likewise perish. Though he is rich he is not contented. You will see him though I shall not [see him]. An (= if) I have not ballads made on you all, and sung to filthy tunes, let a cup of sack be my poison. So † I lose not honour in seeking to augment it, I shall be counselled. I doubt not but to die a fair death for all this, if I escape hanging for killing ‡ that rogue. Whatever may be the consequence, I will do what I have said. Whatever he may say, § I shall not believe him. Say [he] what he will [say] he will never convince me. Do [he] what he can [do], he never pleases the man. Whencesoever the money comes it is welcome. However great his abilities may be, he cannot succeed without industry. Be he ne er so vile, this day shall gentle his condition. The lady's fortune must not go out of the family; one may find comfort in the money, whatever one does [find] in the wife. Cold ‖ as it is, I shall go out. Big as he is, I am not afraid of him. Had I known ¶ this I should have acted differently. Were you my brother I could not do it for you. I would have finished the work had it been possible.

XLVII. Complex Subordinate Clauses. — In the following sentences a substantive clause contains a subordinate clause within it. Analyse the sentences, first treating the substantive as a whole, and afterwards analysing it separately (§§ 572—574). Underline the clauses in the way shown in § 541 :—

Who told you that I built the house which you see? He fears that his father will ask him where he has been. But that I told him who did it, he would never have known. Nor failed they to express how much they praised that for the general safety he despised his own. I think he will soon retrieve his misfortunes if he sets to work with good-will. I should like to know how your friend found out where I live. Now methinks you teach me how a beggar should be answered. I'll see if I can get my husband's ring, which I did make him swear to keep for ever.

Analyse on similar principles the following sentences, which contain complex adjective clauses :—

The house where I lived when I was in town has been pulled down. I have only done what I told you I would do. They fear what ** yet they know must follow. I have secret reasons which I forbear to mention because you are not

* The demonstrative 'so' and the adverbial clause are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'tired.'

† See § 440.

‡ Mind that 'for killing' is not an adverbial adjunct of 'escape,' but an attributive adjunct of the verbal noun 'hanging' (§ 362, 4).

§ Do not confound this construction with that of such a sentence as 'I believe whatever he says.' Analyse this.

‖ The construction in this and the following sentences is very peculiar. 'Cold' is in reality the complement of the predicate. The construction is the same as if we had 'however cold it is.'

¶ 'If' is omitted (§ 442).

** 'What' is in the nominative case, the subject of 'must.' The construction will be best seen by substituting the demonstrative: 'they know [that] that must follow.'

able to answer those of which I make no secret. The time has been that when the brains were out the man would die. The right valiant Banquo walked too late, whom you may say, if it pleases you, Fleance killed. The eighth appears, who bears a glass which shows me many more.

Analyse the following sentences which contain complex adverbial clauses:—

He soon left the house when he heard that I was coming. You will be punished if you do not come when you are called. Don't let us make imaginary evils, when we know we have so many real ones to encounter. He seldom drinks wine because he finds that it disagrees with him.

Analyse the following sentences, each of which contains a subordinate clause containing a second, which in its turn contains a third:—

I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the character which he bore among his neighbours. I know that he would never have spread such a report, if he had not believed what your brother told him. Men who see clearly how they ought to act when they meet with obstacles, are invaluable helpers. It would be well if all men felt how surely ruin awaits those who abuse their gifts and powers. It was so hot in the valley that we could not endure the garments which we had found too thin when we were higher up among the mists. I will give you no more money till I see how you use what you have.

XLVIII. Compound Sentences.—These present no new features. The two or more co-ordinate sentences which make up the compound sentence simply have to be analysed separately (§ 443).

XLIX. Contracted Sentences.—Study carefully §§ 449—452, 582—588.

Test the accuracy of the following contracted sentences in the manner shown in § 450; then fill them up* and analyse them separately:—

You must either be quiet or [you must] leave the room. Our purer essence then will overcome the noxious vapour of the raging fires, or [our purer essence,] inured, [will] not feel [the noxious vapour of these raging fires]. Our greatness will appear then most conspicuous when great things of small [things we can create, when] useful [things] of hurtful [things we can create, when] prosperous [things] of adverse [things] we can create.

My day or night myself I make, whene'er I sleep or play. He yields neither † to force nor † to persuasion. I have not decided whether I will go or not. He allowed no day to pass without either writing or declaiming aloud. "Bad men boast their specious deeds on earth, which glory excites, or close ambition varnished o'er with zeal." "Two principles in human nature reign, self-love to urge, and reason to restrain." "Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call." "Who wickedly is wise or madly brave, Is but the more a fool, the more a knave" "See the sole bliss Heaven could on all bestow, which ‡ who but feels can taste, but thinks can know." Would you rather drink wine or beer?

* Two or three are filled up by way of example.
† Suppress the *conjunctive* portion of *neither—nor* by substituting *not—not*.
‡ 'Which' object of the verb 'taste'; to be repeated as the object of the verb 'know.' 'Feels' and 'thinks' are intransitive.

"Nor steel nor poison, malice domestic, foreign levy, nothing can touch him further." "Freely they stood who stood, and fell who fell." When you return come and tell me the news. Unless you alter your conduct you will offend your friends and bring disgrace upon yourself. "Wiles let them contrive who need, or when they need, not now." "Why should I play the Roman fool, and die on mine own sword?" "Swords I smile at, weapons laugh to scorn, brandished by man that's of a woman born." "What's Hecuba to him, or he to Hecuba?"

L. Sentences containing Elliptical Clauses.—Study §§ 453, 589—600.

Analyse the following sentences, having first supplied the words that are understood, in the way indicated in the first few examples:—

He looks as stupid as an owl [looks stupid]. He is not so clever as his brother [is clever]. I had rather die than [I would soon] endure such a disgrace. He is better to-day than [he was well] yesterday. It is better to die than [it is good] to live in such misery. I have as good a right to the money as you [have a good right to the money]. Old * as he is [old] he is hale and hearty. He was so kind as [a man would be kind] to give me this book. The boy played truant as [it is] usual. He stood aside so as [a man would stand aside] to let me pass. He looked as [he would look] if he could kill me. I'd rather be a dog and bay the moon than [I would soon be] such a Roman. He told me that wisdom is better than wealth [is good] as [he would tell me] if I did not know that before. I'll shed my dear blood drop by drop in the dust, but † I will raise the down-trod Mortimer as high in the air as this unthankful king [is high in the air]. An 'twere not as good a deed as [to] drink [is a good deed] to turn true man and leave these rogues, I am the veriest varlet that ever chewed with a tooth. If I were as tedious as a king [is tedious], I could find it ‡ in my heart to bestow it all on your worship. He has no redeeming qualities whatever [redeeming qualities there are]. How could you make such a blunder as § [you made] to suppose (*i.e.*, in supposing) I did it. What [will happen] if I don't tell you? His wages as ‖ [he is] a labourer amount to twenty shillings a week.

Analyse the following sentences, having first filled up the ellipses:—

I speak not as in absolute fear of you. Rather than be less, he cared not to be at all. What can be worse than to dwell here? Present fears are less than horrible imaginings. He died as one that had been studied in his death to throw away the dearest thing he owed (=owned), as 'twere a careless trifle. More is due than more than all can pay. Art thou not sensible to feeling as to sight? How could you make such a blunder as to suppose I did it. None could be found so bold as to oppose him. They dreaded not more the adven-

* The logical intention of an attributive adjunct is often greater than its mere grammatical force. The full meaning here is:—"[Although he is so] old as he is [old]."

† The phrase, 'but I will King' is an adverbial adjunct of 'will shed' See § 571.

‡ Provisional object, showing the construction of the real object 'to bestow,' &c.

§ Take 'as' as doing duty for a relative pronoun (='which blunder'). See § 165.

‖ This construction is the counterpart (with a connective instead of a demonstrative adverb) of the use of '*so*' followed by a substantive clause to denote a condition or hypothesis. (See Exercise 130.) The full phrase is such as the following:—"*As I were a shepherdess*, I should be piped and sung to, *as a* dairy-wench, I would dance at maypoles" (Ben Jonson, *Cynth. Rev. IV. I.*).

ture than his voice forbidding. The people of Paris are much fonder of strangers that have money than of those that have wit. My pupil understood the art of guiding in money matters much better than I. He procured a room as near the prison as could conveniently be found. About him all the sanctities of Heaven stood thick as stars. He recommended me as a person very fit for a travelling tutor. He is as great a rascal as ever lived. My feet are as cold as a stone. I never attend to such requests as that. The boy is more troublesome than ever. He is no happier than before. He is more agile than his brother, but not so strong. He is fonder of play than of work, but not so fond of play as of idleness. He is as tall a man as ever I saw. You are no worse off than your brother. Will you be so good as to lend me that knife? He was wiser than to risk his money in that undertaking. I am not such a fool as to do that. As to your proposal, I cannot assent to it. As to what you tell me, it passes belief. This is better than if we had lost everything. It is not so bad to suffer misfortune as to deserve it. He is better to-day than yesterday. He looked as if he could kill me. He spoke to me as if I were a thief. He told me that wisdom was better than wealth; as if I did not know that before. With other notes than to the Orphean lyre I sang of chaos and eternal night. I should earn more as a crossing-sweeper. For none made sweeter melody than did the poor blind boy. Herein fortune shows herself more kind than is her custom. For myself alone I would not be so ambitious as to wish myself much better. He accompanied me as far as to the end of the street. When he is best, he is a little worse than a man; and when he is worst, he is little better than a beast. Wisdom is ofttimes nearer when we stoop than when we soar. If time improve our wit as well as wine, say at what age a poet grows divine.

FAULTY SENTENCES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for each correction :—

1. You and me will take a walk (§§ 287, 345).
2. Let you and I take a walk (§§ 191, *note* 521).
3. The effluvia was disgusting (§ 55).
4. The intention of these persons are uncertain (§ 378).
5. Six months' interest are due (§ 378).
6. Neither John nor Henry were at church (§ 484).
7. Either he or I are in fault (§ 484).
8. Neither of them are better than they ought to be (§ 175).
9. Our own conscience, and not other men's opinions, constitute our responsibility (§ 378).
10. John is a better writer than me (§ 596).
11. Is he older than her? (§ 596).
12. Where was you all last night? (§ 378).
13. What signifies promises without performance? (§ 378).
14. "How pale each worshipful and reverend guest
    Rise from a clergy or a city feast!" (§ 175).
15. Every man and boy showed their joy by clapping their hands (§§ 175, 474).
16. No sound but their own voices were heard (§ 378).
17. Good order and not mean savings produce great profit (§ 378).
18. Are either of those pens yours? (§ 175).
19. Let each esteem other better than themselves (§ 175).
20. Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets' are reprinting (§ 482).
21. Nor want nor cold his course delay (§ 386).
22. There are many ways of dressing a calves' head.
23. You did not ought to do that (§ 254*b*).
24. He was one of the wisest men that has ever lived (§§ 456, 465).
25. In modern English two negatives destroy one another.
26. Everybody has their faults (§ 175).
27. Having finished the chapter the volume was shut.
28. He is not one of those who interferes in matters that do not concern him (§§ 456, 465).
29. I do not like those kind of things.
30. What sort of a man is he?
31. This is the greatest error of all the rest (§ 111).

32. "'Twas Love's mistake, who fancied what it feared" (§ 474).
33. Homer as well as Virgil were studied on the banks of the Rhine (§§ 450, 593).
34. There is sometimes more than one auxiliary to a verb (§ 376).
35. Nothing but grave and serious studies delight him (§ 376).
36. Who do you think I met this morning? (§ 368).
37. Whom do you think called on me yesterday? (§ 382).
38. He is a man whom I think deserves encouragement (§ 382).
39. Such a man as him would never say that (§ 594).
40. The fleet are under orders to sail (§ 380).
41. The peasantry wears blouses (§ 380).
42. I have read the second and third chapter (§ 463).
43. Nor eye nor listening ear an object find (§ 484).
44. I, whom nor avarice nor pleasure move (§ 386).
45. Not you but John are in fault (§ 449).
46. Parliament have been prorogued (§ 380).
47. A numerous party were assembled (§ 380).
48. Shakspeare is greater than any dramatist.
49. He is the most admired of all the other dramatists (§ 111).
50. These kind of people are my abhorrence.
51. He wore a large and a very shabby hat (§ 463).
52. Can you see a red and white flag? I can see neither (§ 463).
53. A hot and cold spring were found near each other (§ 463).
54. The love of drink is of all other follies the most pernicious (§ 111).
55. Call at Smith's the bookseller's (§ 458).
56. My friend, him whom I had treated like a brother, has turned against me (§ 457, 2).
57. This injury has been done me by my friend, he whom I treated like a brother (§ 459, 3).
58. He told John and I to come with him (§ 287).
59. Between you and I, he is a great fool (§ 287).
60. Who can this letter be from? (§ 459, 8).
61. *Men* are put in the plural because they are many (§ 482).
62. His father's and his brother's lives were spared (§ 463).
63. He was angry at me asking him the question (§ 494).
64. What is the use of you talking like that (§ 494).
65. Somebody told me, I forget whom (§§ 382, 589).
66. I heard that from somebody or other, I forget who (§§ 382, 589).
67. Divide that cake between you four.
68. There is nothing to show who that belongs to (§ 277).
69. A versifier and poet are two different things (§ 463).
70. I cannot tell you how much pains have been spent on him.
71. I wish to cultivate a further acquaintance with you.
72. I do not know who to send (§ 368).

73. Whom do men say that he is? (§ 382).
74. Who do men declare him to be? (§ 397).
75. I little thought it was him (§§ 457, 3; 466).
76. I feel coldly this morning (§ 393, *note*).
77. She looked cold on her lover (§ 393, *note*).
78. They seemed to be nearly dressed alike
79. He is not only famous for his riches, but for his wisdom (§ 450).
80. A nation has no right to violate the treaties they have made (§ 465).
81. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a book (§ 593).
82. Nobody in their senses would have done that (§ 465).
83. She sings better than me (§ 596).
84. I have my aunt, my uncle, and my father's leave (§ 458).
85. He did no more than it was his duty to have done.
86. The fact of your having said so, is enough for me (§ 494).
87. You have weakened instead of strengthened your case (§ 189).
88. He raved like one out of their mind (§ 465).
89. The Atlantic separates the Old and New World (§ 463).
90. Here lies John Brown, born Jan. 1, 1824, died Sept. 5, 1874 (§ 382).
91. When will we get there? (§ 211).
92. He has not yet began his exercise (§ 225).
93. These flowers smell very sweetly (§ 393, *note*).
94. This is the greatest misfortune that ever has or could happen to me (§ 450).
95. Each strives to cheat the other in their own way (§ 474).
96. It is me that say so (§§ 394, 470).
97. It is I that he fears (§ 470).
98. I would like to see him (§ 211).
99. I think I will be gone by the time you come (*ib.*).
100. Nobody gives so much trouble as he does.
101. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, as knowledge.
102. He was as rich or even richer than his father (§ 450).
103. I hoped to immediately succeed.
104. I expected to have been at home when you called.
105. He not only ought but shall do it (§ 450).
106. While walking in my garden, an idea suddenly occurred to me.
107. Let us not increase our hardships by dissensions among each other.
108. This dedication may serve for almost any book that has, is, or shall be published (§ 450).
109. Doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the wilderness and seeketh that which is gone astray? (§ 450).
110. The centres of each compartment are ornamented with a star (§ 175).
111. Valérie's was one of those impulsive, eager natures that longs for a confidante (§§ 456, 465).
112. The service was impressive, but it lacked either grandeur or beauty.

113. More than one emperor prided himself upon his skill as a swordsman (§ 465).
114. His younger days were spent in England, waiting for an opportunity to get to France.
115. Hoping to hear from you soon, believe me yours truly, J. B. (§ 460).
116. No civil broils have since his death arose (§ 225).
117. We trust that by supplying a genuine and most superior class of article, to increase the confidence so many years bestowed on Mr. M.
118. When I get home I see the being than whom nobody in the world loves another as I love her (§ 589).
119. O Thou my voice inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire (§§ 456, 465).
120. For ever in this humble cell,
Let thee and I, my fair one, dwell (§§ 191 *note*, 521).
121. These plantations are lain out by rule and line (§ 225).
122. Severe the doom that length of days impose (§§ 456, 465).
123. Profusion as well as parsimony are to be avoided.
124. Let the same be she that thou has appointed (§ 397).
125. Of all men else I have avoided thee.
126. It is no use talking so.
127. He wrote a moderately sized volume.
128. He drew a line of about six inches long.
129. I was going to have written him a letter
130. Regard is to be had to every one's circumstances, healths and abilities.
131. The Thames is derived from the Latin *Thamesis*.
132. He is a boy of nine years old.
133. In reading you should sit as uprightly as possible.
134. He made another joke which she did not hear, and had better be suppressed (§§ 287, 450).
135. I can tell you this much.
136. He has only done that much of his task.

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EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' EXAMINATION.

The following papers are made up of questions on Grammar and Etymology selected from amongst those set since 1871 at the Examination for Public School Teachers conducted by the Central Committee for the Province of Ontario :—

FIRST CLASS.

I.

1. Give reasons for regarding the article as an adjective.
2. Remark on the grammatical peculiarities of the following words or expressions:—"Children," "alms," "gander," "songstress," "The more the merrier," "He is gone a-hunting," "The house is building."
3. Give as fully as you can the syntax of the subjunctive mood.
4. Give some examples of families of words from a common root.
5. To what great family of languages does the English belong? Under what subdivision is it properly classed? Mention the languages of the same subdivision.
6. Give instances of Celtic, Latin, and Danish remains in the English language, and state for what classes of words we have adopted chiefly Greek, Latin, and French derivatives.
7. Give specimens of spondee, dactyl, and anapest, and describe the Spenserian stanza.
8. Explain the figures Syncope, Paralepsis, and Pleonasm, indicating the class to which each belongs, and distinguish between Barbarism and Solecism, Simile and Metaphor.

II.

1. When may proper nouns be regarded as common, and when are common nouns equivalent to proper?
2. Indicate the various uses of the pronoun "it," and account for the curious change of gender in the following sentence :—"Death hath not only lost the sting, but *it* bringeth a coronet in *her* hand."—*Jeremy Taylor.*
3. (*a*) What may be regarded as the characteristic property of the verb? Does it ever include, besides, the property of the adjective? (*b*) Exhibit the origin of the termination "d" or "ed" in the past tense. (*c*) What value do you attach to inflection as a mode of indicating number and person in English verbs?

4. Enumerate the various uses of "but." Is such a construction as "Princes are but men" inconsistent with the grammatical definition of the adverb?

5. (*a*) Illustrate the primary and secondary use of the preposition. (*b*) Draw up a table exhibiting the relations expressed by prepositions.

6. Latham speaks of Etymology in the wide and in the limited sense of the word; explain his meaning.

7. (*a*) What proportion do words of Anglo-Saxon origin bear to those from classical sources? (*b*) Show that this proportion is not maintained in the language of ordinary intercourse.

8. Scan the following lines:—

> The proper study of mankind is man.
> Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note.

III.

1. "Orthographical expedients are resorted to on account of the imperfections of the English alphabet, which may be characterized as deficient, redundant, and ambiguous"—*Authorised Spelling Book.*

   Explain clearly the meaning of the term "Orthographical Expedient," and show in what respects the English alphabet is deficient, redundant, and ambiguous.

2. Explain the meaning of Orthöepy, Idiom, Dialect, and Metaphor, and give the best definition you can of "letter," "syllable," and "word."

3. Define Adjective and Pronoun; state how you classify adjectives and pronouns; show where you draw the line between these parts of speech; and explain your views with regard to the parsing of "his," "each," "this," "all," "another," "what," and "some," in the various constructions.

4. Explain with the aid of examples the meaning of Grammatical Equivalent and Conjunctive Adverb.

5. What argument does Max Müller regard as establishing conclusively that the English language is a branch of the great Teutonic stem of the Aryan form of speech?

6 (*a*) Mention some of the Celtic elements of the English language. (*b*) Name the two branches of the Celtic stock of languages. (*c*) Which of these was most probably the language of ancient Gaul? Confirm your answer by pointing out affinities.

7. Point out the difference between Barbarism and Solecism, and explain the figures Pleonasm, Metonymy, Paragoge, and Synecdoche, giving examples and indicating the class to which each belongs.

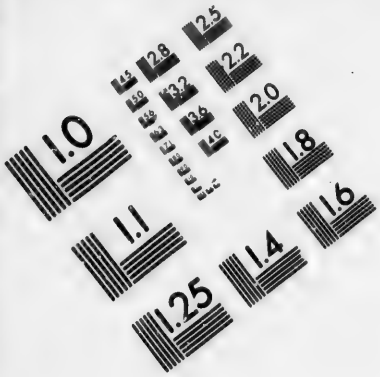
8. Give specimens of Iambus, Trochee, and Amphibrach.

IV.

1. Give the origin of the termination "ess" as a mode of expressing the feminine gender.
2. The termination "er" is common to adjectives of the comparative degree; to some other adjectives, as "upper," "under," &c.; and to certain pronouns, prepositions, and adverbs, as "either," "over," &c. What common idea underlies this identity of termination?
3. Define Relative Pronoun, Verb Impersonal (Proper and Improper), and Conjunctive Adverb.
4. Show how the Indicative and Potential Moods differ in their declarative force.
5. Some grammarians have given it as a rule that "verbs substantive govern the Nominative Case." Is this correct? Investigate the rule.
6. "Conjunctions connect not words but propositions." Show that this assertion can be maintained even with sentences like these: "John and Thomas carry a sack to market;" "Three and three make six."
7. What is meant by Service Metre and Alexandrines? Give specimens of each.
8. Compare words of Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman origin for the purpose of explaining the preference given to either element in the choice of words.

V.

1. Do you consider "chicken," "riches," "alms," and "summons" to have been originally singular or plural? Give the grounds for your opinion.
2. Give examples of the indefinite relative. To what restrictions is it subject?
3. To what parts of speech is the termination "ing" common? Show fully how they are to be distinguished.
4. Give Latham's opinion in regard to the question of concord when two or more pronouns of different persons and of the singular number follow each other disjunctively.
5. Though all English comparatives end in "r," no superlative ends in "rt." How has this happened?
6. Illustrate the influence of Onomatopœia in the formation of words.
7. Give the derivation of the following words, tracing the history of the meaning wherever you can:—Muslin, currant, hymeneal, bursar, coercion, rill, priest, deed, bishopric, urbanity, universe, here, inoculate, religion, gentry, chestnut, vulgate, preposterous, rival, romance, health, legend, fancy.
8. When and under what circumstances did the principal elements which enter into the composition of the English language severally take their places in it?



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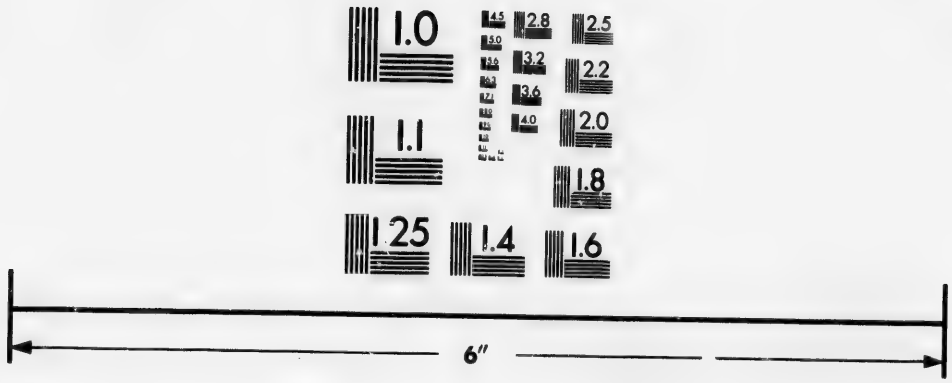

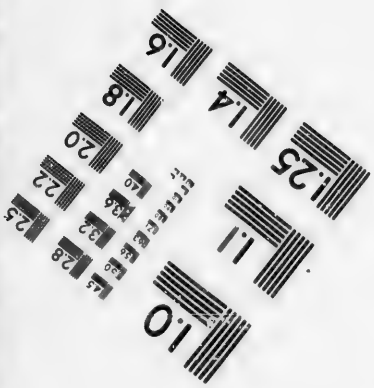

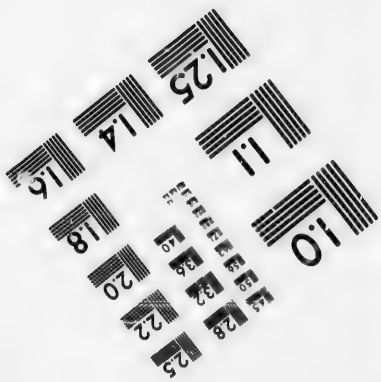

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VI.

1. Name the inflected parts of speech ; state the inflections to which they are subject; and give an example of every inflectional form in the language. Give all the inflectional forms of "abbot," "me," "was." Are "fatherly," "happen," and "acknowledgment" inflectional forms? Explain the forms "his" and "whose."
2. Some grammarians consider the article and participle distinct parts of speech. State your own views, with reasons.
3. Give examples of sentences in which it is more appropriate to use "that" than "who" or "which." Explain the reason in each case.
4. Show to what extent we are to receive the statement that "the passive voice expresses passively the same thing that the active voice does actively."
5. Give as fully as you can the syntax of the Possessive Case.
6. Of words which have disappeared from our literary dialect mention (1) some which modern authors of note have endeavoured to revive ; (2) others which survive only as provincialisms ; and (3) others which pass for Americanisms, but which are really Old English.
7. Explain the figures Hyperbaton, Apocope, and Apostrophe, indicating the class to which each belongs.
8. What is meant by Historical Etymology?

VII.

1. Mention the causes of diversity in Orthography, and state in what respects the English alphabet is deficient, redundant, and inconsistent.
2. Give the best definition of Gender you know. State why you consider it the best, and point out its defects.
3. "The construction of English Infinitives is two-fold : (1) objective ; (2) gerundial."—*Latham.*
   Explain fully and exemplify this statement.
4. Name the verbs which specially belong to the class called "copulative," and explain their office in analysis. How would you deal in analysis with the Imperative and the Absolute?
5. Illustrate fully the adjective in predicate.
6. Derive the following words : — Mechanics, politics, cambric. meander, tantalize, April, Thursday, furlong, fathom, pilgrim, vintage, sarcasm, gazette, scarlet, tulip, tobacco, almanac, jubilee, caravan, sonnet, skate, ballast, calico, caricature, alligator.
7. Give the force of each of the affixes: Hood, ling, some, ric, aye, and less ; illustrate by examples.
8. Give examples of Synæresis, Syncope, Paralepsis, Hyperbole

VIII.

1. Define Logical Subject, Grammatical Subject, Case, Mood, Middle Voice, Predicate, Copulative Conjunction, and Disjunctive Conjunction.
2. Give a list of defective verbs.
3. "Substantives signifying the same thing agree in case." Point out the defects of this rule for apposition, and define "Apposition."
4. Give an etymological analysis of the following words, mentioning in each case prefix or affix, root, literal meaning, and ordinary signification:—Discussion, expressed, adventure, condolence, hypocrite, expedite, atonement, accuracy, cemetery, extravagant, trespass, dilapidation, advocate, adherent, disparity, colloquial, ambitious, transgression, degeneracy, declension (connect grammatical sense with root), dissection, pilgrimage, inarticulate, compunction.
5. Mention English words related in derivation to "speak," "sorrow," "choose," "what," "bequeath," "death," and "barren."
6. Which parts of speech are all of Saxon growth?
7. What traces of Danish occupancy do we find in local English names?
8. Write half a dozen lines on any subject you choose, using only words of Anglo-Saxon origin.

IX.

1. (*a*) Explain "strong" and "weak" preterites. (*b*) Cite instances to show that the tendency has been for some time to exclude the "strong" forms, quoting also some of the very few instances in which the reverse has taken place.
2. Define Middle Voice, Copulative and Disjunctive Co-ordination, and explain Dativus Ethicus, Adverbs of Deflection, and Equivocal Reflective.
3. Specify and exemplify the various constructions in which the sign of the possessive case is omitted.
4. Give examples of different cases which may arise in the application of the principle: "A verb must agree with its nominative in number and person," and state the special rule applicable to each case.
5. Distinguish between "common" and "mutual;" "stationery" and "stationary;" "feminine" and "effeminate;" "sanitary" and "sanatory;" "persecute" and "torment;" "loiter" and "linger."
6. What information about the following articles may be obtained from the names they bear:—Port (wine), sherry, nankeen, ammonia, bayonet, cherry, currants?
7. Give the derivation of:—Blame, metaphysics, peripatetics, synod, lord, ma'am, fee, villain, anathema, premature, retrograde, extravagant, rather, treacle, lass, comfort, epitaph, paper, executor, save, depose, mode, serve, paste, cover, lesson, meaning, fur, impostor, insolent.

5. Write etymological notes on :
   (*a*) In like manner also that women adorn themselves in modest apparel with *shamefacedness* and sobriety :—I. Tim. ii. 9.
   (*b*) Woe *worth* the chose woe *worth* the day.—*Scott.*
   (*c*) Come Fate into the list
   And champion me to the *utterance.*—*Shakespeare.*

SECOND CLASS.

I.

1. In what words is the aspirate rightly dropped when it stands as their first letter ?
2. State the various uses of the pronoun "it."
3. Show that the perfect is a present tense, and write sentences to exhibit the violation of the "sequence of tenses" in connection with that tense.
4. Explain the construction of the objective case in each of the following sentences :—(*a*) He waited all night ; (*b*) The book is worth a shilling ; (*c*) Full many a league they rode ; (*d*) They dreamt the future flight.
5. Give the different powers of the prefixes "be" and "en" or "em."
6. Make a list of five words from each of the Latin verbs ago, curro, jacio, fero, video, and rego.
7. Give words –two in each case—derived from these Greek roots : Charis, cratos, metron, phone, pathos.

II.

1. Investigate the statement that "mine" and "thine" are the possessive case of the personal pronoun, whilst "my" and "thy" are the possessive adjective.
2. "A verb is a word that makes an assertion." Discuss the defects of this definition.
3. What prepositions should follow "glad," "true," "insinuate," and "intervene" ?
4. What are the Latin and Greek prefixes meaning "from," "beyond," "without" ?
5. Derive the following words, giving the etymological analysis where you can :—Where, ephemeral, alone, before, river, rapturous, current, month, pain, blood, generally, number, agency, vicious, diabolical, wrote, stenography, pagoda.
6. Make a list of words derived from "lego," including four from the Latin and four from the Greek verb.
7. In the following groups of verbs of similar signification, indicate the appropriate use of each verb :—Esteem, estimate, appreciate ; grant, allow, bestow, concede ; build, erect, construct ; usurp, arrogate, assume.

III.

1. Give examples of verbs of strong and of weak conjugation.
2. State the rule relating to "sequence of tenses" in connection with the conjunction "that," and quote Latham's reason to show that the rule must necessarily be absolute.
3. Illustrate the use of the adjective in predicate, and state clearly its force and relation.
4. Define and give examples of adverbial sentence and complex sentence, and form or quote a sentence containing a dependent proposition which is the subject of a verb.
5. Enumerate the affixes denoting state, condition, or quality, and give examples of each in combination.
6. Convert, by the help of prefixes or suffixes, the following adjectives into verbs :—Large, just, humble, strong ; and convert the following verbs into nouns :—Weave, compel, receive, dig think. Explain the law which governs each change.
7. Trace the following to Latin or Greek roots :—Venison, sample, maintain, livery, human, hermit, sarcophagus, volume, tautology, technical, phylactery, blasphemy.

IV.

1. What are the principal parts of "travel," "smell," "benefit" ?
2. Give examples of the different uses (*a*) of words ending in "ing," and (*b*) of "but."
3. Give instances of infinitives and infinitive phrases used as the objects of a verb.
4. Give a detailed analysis of the following passage and the full syntactical parsing of all the italicised words : "*Strange as it* may seem *to find* a song-writer put forward *as* an active *instrament* of union among his fellow-Hellens, it is uot *the* less true that those poets whom we have briefly passed in review, *by enriching* the common *language and* by circulating from town to town either in person or in their compositions, *contributed to fan* the flame of pan-Hellenic patriotism at a time *when there were few circumstances to co-operate* with them, and when the causes tending to perpetuate isolation seemed in the ascendant."—*Grote.*
5. (*a*) Explain the term "Hybridism," and illustrate by examples.
   (*b*) Show that "icicle" is hybrid in appearance only.
6. Give examples of (*a*) Derivatives formed by merely changing the radical vowel ; (*b*) Primitive words formed on the principle of imitation ; and (*c*) Derivatives from dotos, hodos, laos, pingo, olo or olesco, linquo, fligo, arceo, tero, and vello.
7. Trace the following to Lat n roots :—Egregious, lateral, i lusion, annex, complex, pulverize, quotient, satisfy, scripture, extortion, adult, monument.

V.

1. Write the plural of hidalgo, no, chimney, colloquy, Livy, vinculum, 3, w, appendix, Lord Gordon, court-martial.
2. Classify pronouns, enumerating those under each head.
3. Give the principal parts of hew, fly, flee, stride, rive, crow.
4. Give a classification of conjunctions.
5. K. RICH. Of comfort no man speak ;
   Let's talk of graves, of worms, and epitaphs ;
   Make *dust* our *paper*, and *with* rainy eyes.
   Write sorrow on the bosom of the earth.
   Let's choose executors, and talk of wills ;
   And *yet not so—for what* can we bequeath
   Save our deposed bodies *to* the ground ?
   Our lands, our lives, and all, are *Bolingbroke's*,
   And nothing can we call *our own* but death
   And that small *model* of the barren earth
   Which serves *as paste* and cover to our bones."

   (*a*) Divide the above extract into propositions, stating their relations to each other, and analysing them ; (*b*) Parse the italicised words ; (*c*) Make a list of the words of classical origin in the passage.
6. Give words—two in each case—derived from these Greek roots : Ago, biblos, martur, deka, skopeo, tupos.
7. Give words of Latin and English origin corresponding with apology, catalogue, democracy, eulogize, mystery, prophesy, sympathy.

VI.

1. Give abstract nouns of the same derivation as "brief," "true," "common," "needy," "poor."
2. Give examples of the different constructions in which "as" is used, and tell in which of them it may be replaced by "that."
3. Distinguish :

May I go	from	Can I go.
Shall I go	"	Will I go.
Were I to go	"	Was I to go.
Would I have gone	"	Should I have gone.

4. Give adjectives of Latin origin corresponding to the following nouns :—Dog, head, house, friend, step, light, law, rest.
5. Trace the following words to Greek roots :—Rhetoric, crypt, nautical, cosmogony, ephemeral, asteroid, polity, telegraph.
6. Give words—two in each case—derived from the Latin roots faber, fruor, integer, licet, plico, salio, voveo
7. What do you understand by the "imperfect incorporation" of words introduced from a foreign language ? State the principles which characterize it. and give examples.

VII.

1. What do you understand by "gender" in grammar? Show that your definition applies to each of these words: Lady, seamstress, man-servant, testatrix, mistress, heroine, margravine.
2. Write the past tense, present participle, and past participle of "flow," "fly," "singe," "die," "loose," "lay," and "hear."
3. Give accurate rules for the use of "shall" and "will."
4. Form or quote sentences to illustrate (1) the restrictive and the connective force of the relative pronoun, and (2) the twofold use of the cognate object.
5. Parse the italicised words in the following quotations:—(*a*) In spite *of* such a *man* as *Gibbon's* opposition; (*b*) They are not the same *that* they have been; (*c*) He did it in the *Geography* class; (*d*) They are very *much* in the style of Milton's Sonnets; (*e*) That is the way *that* boys begin.
6. Trace the following words to Latin and Greek roots, distinguishing those from each language:—Autumn, biscuit, disastrous, epidemic, autocratic, linen, analyse, amnesty, fanatic, optics, infant, verdict, oxygen, frantic, empyrean, federal, isothermal, carnival, polygon, system, fossil.
7. Give adjectives formed from Latin or Greek roots corresponding to the following English nouns:—Brother, forest, breath, beginning, husband, cloud, leg, eye, hand, rule, ship, tooth, fist, glass, disease, marriage, art.

VIII.

1. What parts of speech perform a double function? Give full explanatory examples.
2. Explain "Conjunctive Adverb," and write sentences containing the various forms of the "Adverbial Phrase."
3. Give rules for the right use of the subjunctive mood, with examples.
4. In each of the following pairs of sentences, point out the difference in meaning:—(*a*) He was the first *that* came. He was the first *who* came. (*b*) He would make a better statesman than lawyer. He would make a better statesman than *a* lawyer. (*c*) He arrived *safe*. He arrived *safely*.
5. Parse the italicised words in the following sentences:—
   (*a*) Did "religion," when our language was translated, *mean godliness?*
   (*b*) Thus shall mankind his guardian care engage,
   The promised *father* of a future age.
   (*c*) In Christian hearts, O for a pagan zeal!
   A needful but opprobrious *prayer!*
   (*d*) He is busy *thrashing*.
6. Derive "foliage," "atone," "demagogue," "lieutenant," "remnant," "jelly," "closet."
7. Mention words—two in each case—derived from these Latin roots: Arceo, caro, colo (are), falx, fiscus, gelu, grex, orior, sinus, tueor.

THIRD CLASS.

I.

1. Define Abstract Noun, Relative Pronoun, Verb Transitive and Intransitive, Adverb, Preposition.
2. Name and define those parts of speech which are inflected.
3. Name and distinguish plurals of nouns which have two forms of plural with different signification.
4. Give any six examples of irregular comparison of adjectives, and state the classes of adjectives which do not admit of comparison.
5. What changes for the sake of euphony do the following prefixes undergo :—Ad, con, sub, syn ?
6. Mention prefixes—each in combination with some word—which denote rest or motion forward and backward in place and time.
7. Give words in which the following affixes appear, and state the force of each :—Ard, eer, ory, dom, sy, ment, ship, ism, ule, ose, ish.

II.

1. Name the four great divisions of Grammar, and state the province of each.
2. Write the plurals of : Stuff, potato, canto, grotto, attorney, seraph, cousin-german, medium, stamen, appendix, thesis, chrysalis, cargo, tyro, echo, chimney, criterion, axis, genius, index, aide-de-camp.
3. Name the distributive and indefinite pronouns.
4. How is the verb inflected ? Name the moods and state the force of each.
5. In what cases is the final consonant doubled before an affix ?
6. Illustrate by examples the use of each of the prefixes denoting negation or destitution, and of each of the affixes denoting manner and rank, office, or dominion.
7. Give the different forms assumed by the prefixes "in" and "ad" in composition, illustrating your answer by examples.

III.

1. Write the plural of "cheese," "policy," "soliloquy," and "phenomenon ;" the singular of "species," "apparatus," and "indices ;" and the feminine of "beau," "earl," "lad," "stag," and "ram."
2. Explain the terms Declension, Conjugation, Case, Mood, Tense, Voice, Person, and Participle, illustrating your answer with examples.
3. Form the past tense and past participle of the following verbs :—Rid, rend, shed, dive, lean, light, wed, speed.
4. Show the different ways in which the words "there," "it," and "but" are employed.

5. Parse the following sentence, and change the form so that it shall contain a Nominative Absolute :—"When fresh troops had arrived, the battle was resumed."
6. Compose or quote a sentence containing the words "bail" and "bale" properly used, and another illustrating the different meanings of the word "crew."
7. What is the force of the following affixes :—Age, ry, ice. dom, ness, ock, ic, ose, ish, en? State in regard to each of them whether it is of Anglo-Saxon or classic origin.

IV.

1. What is meant by Inflection, Gender, Predicate, Complement, Impersonal Verb, Interjection, Conjunction?
2. What is the Passive Voice? When may a verb in the Passive Voice be followed by the Objective Case?
3. Give a list of Auxiliary Verbs.
4. How many tenses are there in the Potential Mood? Give the signs of each.
5. Parse the following sentence, and change the active into the passive construction :—"His love of change drove him a pilgrim to the Holy Land."
6. Compose a complex sentence containing an example of Apposition.
7. What are the meanings of the prefixes : Para, meta, ob, be ; and of the affixes : Ness, by, dom?

V.

1. Quote any two special rules for the formation of the plural of nouns, and write the plural of the following : Wharf, folio, spoonful, Mussulman, cherub, memorandum, miasma, alumnus.
2. Compare such of the following adjectives as are capable of comparison :—Cool, late, happy, perpendicular, many, triangular.
3. Inflect the Present Indicative of the verb "to strike" in all its three forms.
4. Define the terms Subject and Predicate.
5. Change the construction of the following sentence so as to introduce a Nominative Absolute, and parse the latter half :—"Having completed his arrangements for the battle, Napoleon beheld the vast array defile before him."
6. Form or quote a sentence containing a dependent proposition equivalent to an adverb.
7. Attach roots to the following prefixes, exhibiting when possible the change made in the prefix for the sake of euphony :—Ad, re, inter, trans, con, in, syn, amphi, hyper, sub.

VI.

1. Form Abstract Nouns from the following adjectives :—Pure, brief, slow, dear, intricate.
2. Write the plural of "pea," "attorney," "stratum," "lens," "focus," "Mussulman," "Henry," "sixpence," "seraph," "cameo," "index," "crisis ;" and the masculine or feminine form, as the case may be, of "widow," "czar," "testator," "witch, "duke," "sultan," "earl."

3. Give rules for forming the degrees of comparison of adjectives.
4. Write the past tense, present participle, and past participle of the following verbs:—Loose, bear, come, eat, flow, fly, go, dye, singe, die.
5. Re-write the following sentences so as to change the grammatical construction, but express the same meaning:—(*a*) To me the case seems to stand thus; (*b*) In arguing about field sports, I was arguing with people whose doings were open to the world; (*c*) He speaks the truth.
6. Explain the different uses of the objective case, giving an example of each.
7. Write Latin or Greek prefixes signifying "aside," "across," "against," "down," "together," "change," "near to," with examples.

VII.

1. Explain the inflection 's in the Possessive case, and give examples of the appositive to the possessive.
2. Give a list of comparatives which want the positive.
3. What rules are laid down to regulate the use of the relative "that"?
4. Distinguish between Transitive and Intransitive verbs, giving an example of each.
5. Give the rule for the construction of the Predicate noun, and state with what verbs it is most frequently connected.
6. What is a sentence? Write specimens of simple, compound, and complex sentences.
7. Give words in which the following affixes appear, and state the force of each affix:—Ling, all, ster, ness, acy, ure.

VIII.

1. Write a sentence containing an example of every part of speech properly used.
2. (*a*) What are the various modes of distinguishing the masculine and feminine genders? (*b*) Give the feminine of "stag," "marquis," "buck," "executor."
3. Write the past tense, past participle and present participle of the following verbs:—Set, flee, seethe, cleave (to split), bear (to bring forth), shear, shoe, job, lie down, omit, prefer, wink, chew.
4. How may a simple subject be changed to a complex one?
5. (*a*) Show that intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive. (*b*) Give the transitive forms corresponding with "rise," "lie," "sit," "fall."
6. Show by examples how a verb may be modified by a word, by a phrase, and by a subordinate sentence.
7. Give words in which the following affixes appear, and state the force of each:—Ster, mony, ric, ion, ency, tude.

HIGH SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

The following papers, with the exception of the two Intermediate ones for 1876, are made up of questions set since 1873 for entrance into the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of Ontario :—

I.

1. Define Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Mood, Tense.
2. Give the plurals of new, staff, folio, penny, index.
3. Give the feminines of earl, friar, hero, marquis, stag, ram, baron, peacock, preceptor; and the masculines of witch, roe, empress, niece, lass, maid, filly.
4. Of the following adjectives compare those that admit of comparison: Good, near, happy, beautiful, many, perpendicular, old, eternal.
5. Inflect the Personal Pronouns.
6. Give the past tense and past participle of the following verbs :— Flow, go, cleave (to split), get, smite, weave, crow, blow, mow, fall, call, tear, may, shoe, drink.
7. Analyse and parse : "The sun rose pleasantly over the scene that lay before us."

II.

1. Define Transitive Verb, Active Voice, Finite Verb, Adverb, Preposition.
2. Give the plurals of deer, family, foray, potato, half, beau, German, Frenchman.
3. Give the positive forms corresponding to "most," "first," "next," "eldest."
4. Give adverbs correspondihg with "quick," "good," "little."
5. Write out in full, in the ordinary form, the indicative mood of the singular.
6. Give the past tense and past participle of slide, stoop, hide, hurt, wink, swim, set.
7. Analyse :

> "Full many a gem of purest ray serene
> The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear."

And parse the italicised words in the following sentence:

"*Where is the man that* will not fight for his country"?

III.

1. Define Conjunction, Subject, Case, Person, Personal Pronoun, Verb.
2. Write the plural nominative of sheep, species, beau, solo, cherub, Mr.; the possessive singular and plural of chimney, sky, lass; the comparative and superlative degrees of many, tedious, holy; and the past tense, present participle, and past participle of rear, beseech, singe, dun, die, ply.

3. ...the third singular present indicative, th... singular pre... sent subjunctive, present participle, and past participle of th... following verbs: Dig, swim, flee, pay, pry, deal, thrus... threaten, shrink.
4. Express the following fractions by means of words.—

   $\frac{3}{4}$ $\frac{5}{8}$ $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{11}{12}$ and $\frac{19}{21}$.

5. Name three adjectives that are irregularly compared, and com... pare them.
6. Into what classes are pronouns divided? Give an example of each class.
7. Analyse:—"Saint Augustine! thou well hast said
   That of our vices we can frame
   A ladder, if we will but tread
   Beneath our feet each deed of shame."

   And parse:—"Scott, the famous author, who was an early ris... usually worked four hours in his study before breakfast."

IV.

1. Write the singular of potatoes, pence, swine, clauses, ties, spies, lies, cries; the possessive plural of who, lady, g... man; all the persons in the singular of the present an... past indicative of *will*, the principal verb, and all the p... in the singular of the present and the past of *will*, the au... verb; and the present and past participles of fulfil, sue,
2. What is meant in Grammar by "qualify," "propos... "gender"?
3. Classify adjectives, and give an example of each class.
4. Give the rule for the use of the pronoun "that."
5. Give the masculine or feminine forms, as the case may be, of sultana, countess, executor; the plural of money, lily, gas, brother, pea, cargo; the comparative and super... degrees of far, ill, funny; the past tense and past part... of lead, sit, loose, pay, stay, shoe.
6. Analyse:

   "They buried him darkly at dead of night,
   The sods with their bayonets turning,
   By the struggling moonbeams' misty light,
   And the lanterns dimly burning."

7. Parse: "John studies two hours daily, but James, his br... passes his time in playing chess."

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§ —572, may be written one underneath the
at ... in h. A compound sentence, consisting
have ... o be es by means of brackets, in the way
bject ... r objec up by writing vertically instead of
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ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS.

A.
guis
dig

THE mode of writing out the Analysis of Sentences which is adopted in the Grammar, §§ [illegible]–372, is perhaps the least troublesome; but if it be preferred, the process may be conducted by writing down at once, in horizontal lines, and at the top of parallel columns, all the possible components of the sentences that may have to be analysed, and then tabulating the results of the analysis, as in the following examples. When the subject or object of the verb is compound, with adjuncts attached to the separate members of it (*e.g.*, 'A white man and a black man were walking other, having of two or mo indicated in o horizontally, i

Sentence to be Analysed.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject.	Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.	Predicate. a. Simple.	Predicate. b. Complex: Verb of incomplete Predication	Predicate. b. Complex: Complement
A. "A reader unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education, will probably undervalue it when he sees that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation."	Complete sentence.	Reader	1. a 2. unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education	will undervalue		
B. "When he sees that so large a portion of time is devoted to —— generation."	Adverbial clause, qualifying the predicate 'will undervalue.'	he		sees		
C. "[That] so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors, whose works —— generation."	Substantive clause, object of verb 'sees.'	portion	1. so large 2. a 3. of time	is devoted		
D. "Whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation."	Adjective clause, qualifying the noun 'authors.'	works	whose		seem	to have
A. "Blest he, though undistinguished from the crowd by wealth or dignity, who dwells secure, where man, by nature fierce, has laid aside his fierceness, having learnt, though slow to learn, the manners and the arts of civil life."	Complete sentence.	he	*Adj. clause*—[who dwells secure where man —— civil life (B),]		[is]	blest
B. "Who dwells secure where man, by nature fierce, has laid aside his fierceness, having learnt, though slow to learn, the manners and the arts of civil life."	Adjective clause, qualifying '*he*.'	who			dwells	secure
C. "[Though] he be undistinguished from the crowd by wealth or dignity."	Compound contracted adverbial clause, qualifying the predicate verb *is*.	1. he 2. he			be be	undistinguished undistinguished
D. "Where man, by nature fierce, has laid aside his fierceness, having learnt, though slow to learn, the manners and the arts of civil life."	Adverbial clause, qualifying the predicate *dwells*.	man	1. by nature fierce 2. having learnt, [though *he is* slow to learn (E),] the manners and the arts of civil life	has laid		
E. "[Though] *he is* slow to learn."	Elliptical adverbial clause, qualifying *having learnt*.	he			is	slow

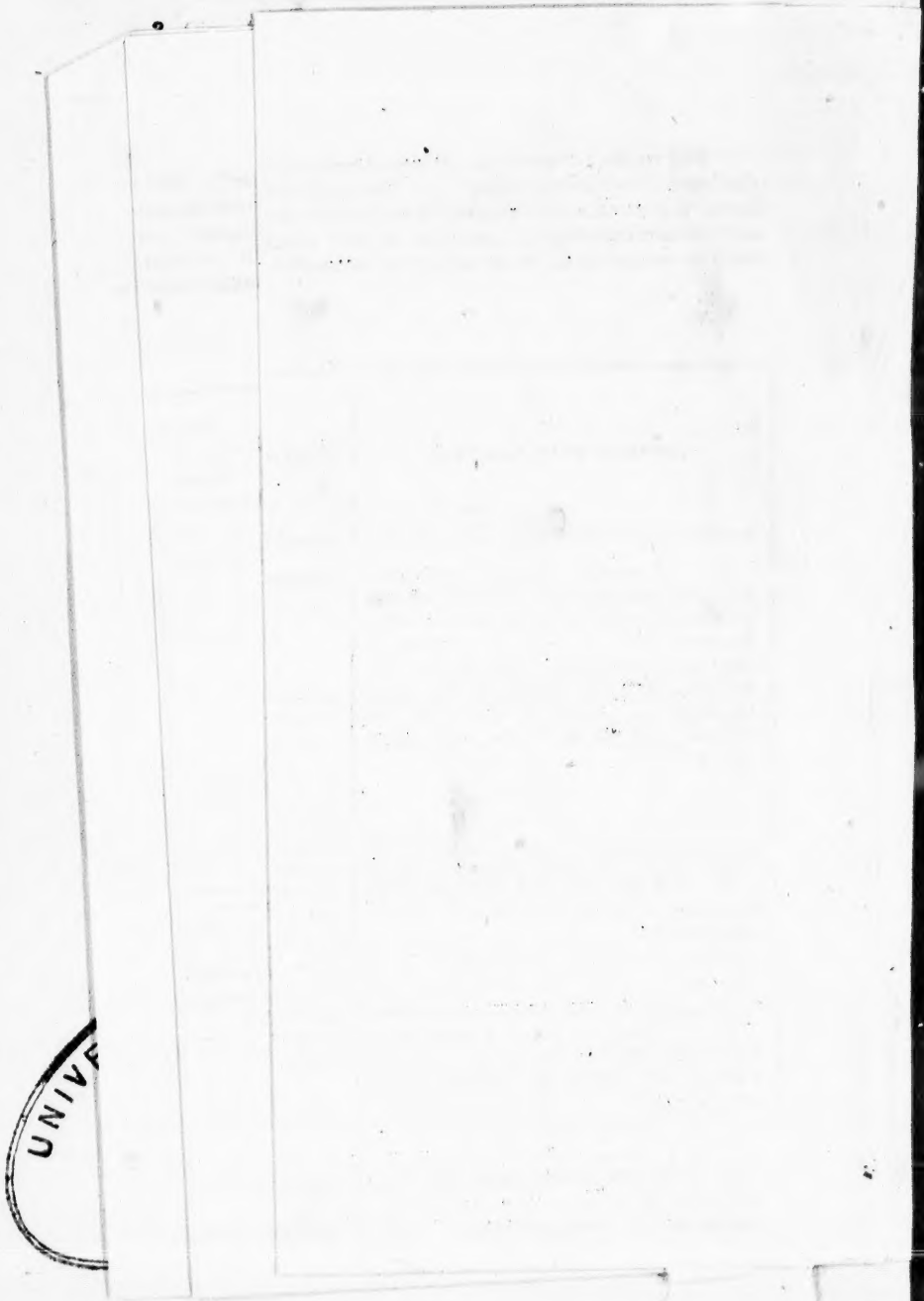
If the mode of denoting subordinate clauses which is given in § [illegible] be adopted in the above table, in the
In the second sentence we may substitute (*a'*) for [illegible], (*b'*) for C

is perhaps horizontal analysed, ect of the black man

were walking together"), the substantives forming the compound subjects may be written one underneath the other, having their proper adjuncts placed over against them in the next column. A compound sentence, consisting of two or more co-ordinate clauses, may be split up into its compound clauses by means of brackets, in the way indicated in one of the examples below. The columns may of course be filled up by writing vertically instead of horizontally, if it be found more convenient.

Predicate.		Object.		Attributive Adjuncts of Object.	Attributive Adjuncts of the Complement of the Predicate.	Adverbial Adjuncts.	
b. Complex		*a.* Of Predicate Verb.	*b.* Of Complement, when that is a Verb			*a.* Of Predicate Verb.	*b.* Of Complement of Predicate.
Verb of incomplete Predication	Complement						
		it				1. Probably 2. *Adverbial clause*—[When he sees that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient author, whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our generation (D).]	
		Subst. clause—[That so large a portion of time is devoted to —— generation (C).]				When	
						to the study of a few ancient authors [whose works seem to —— our generation (D)].	
seem	to have		being	1. no 2. direct 3. on the studies and duties of our own generation.			
[is]	blest					*Adv. clause*—[Though he be undistinguished from the crowd by wealth or dignity (C)]	
dwells	secure					*Adv. clause*—[Where man, by nature —— life (D).]	
be	undistinguished						1. from the crowd 2. by wealth
be	undistinguished						1. from the crowd 2. by dignity
		fierceness		his		1. astir 2. where	
is	slow						to learn

pted in the above table, in the first sentence we may substitute (*a*) for C; and (*a''bc'*) for D.
bstitute (*a'*) for B, (*b''*) for C, (*a'c''*) for D; and (*a'c''d''*) for E.



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